The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Nominal Candidate must have enjoyed reading the accounts of the scene at Portland, Wednesday week, when the Real Candidate "struck the keynote of the campaign." There was not even so much as a Harrison and Morton banner, or a picture of the man who is running for care-taker of the White House. The Leader of the Party, the candidate for Head of the Administration, dominated the occasion. It was Mr. Blaine, not Mr. Harrison, to whom the chairman of the meeting alluded when he spoke of "the American champion of protection"; it was Mr. Blaine, not Mr. Harrison, to whom the same speaker referred when he said that "millions of Americans will follow him in this contest that is now being waged in this country."

That Mr. Blaine is an habitual blunderer, cannot be denied. He writes impulsively, and speaks without carefully verifying his alleged facts. This has been uniformly true of him from the time of the Mulligan letters to the "Paris Message." That he has blundered every time that he has opened his mouth since his "triumphal" return is notorious, as is the fact that he dearly loves rich men, and longs for the friendly society of all corporations and other aggregations of wealth. Like Mr. Foster, he yearns for a share of the "fat" that is in such men and combinations. That he would naturally have a warm sympathy for trusts, any one who has followed his public career would not for a moment question. But having such sympathy, and expressing it openly, are two very different things. If Mr. Blaine had sent his views on trusts in a confidential letter to Mr. Carnegie, and had marked it either "Private—use wisely," or "Burn this," nobody would have been surprised.

The press report of Senator Sherman's remarks on the subject of trusts last week left some doubt whether he intended to say that these organizations should be checkmated by repealing or lowering duties, or by the exercise of the direct taxing power. The report as we find it in the *Congressional Record* leaves no doubt that he referred to the former method. He said:

> "My impression is, that in any bill reported to the Senate in respect to the collection of the revenue, there will be provisions offered seeking, if possible, to prevent the evils which unquestionably grow out of these combinations and trusts, especially by corporations. The difficulty, however, is, that many of these combinations and trusts—some of the most dangerous of them, like the Standard Oil Company—grow out of matters as to which there is no tax, and *where they do not grow out of the revenue laws.* Whether in such cases we can reach the combinations and trusts which affect every citizen of the United States, I do not know; but it is certain that where these combinations grow out of revenue laws, as the Sugar Trust, which is one of the most dangerous and wrongful Trusts ever organized in this country, the Trust can certainly be reached by the operation of our revenue laws."

The plain statement is, that some trusts do grow out of the revenue laws, and that these are to be checkmated, if at all, by modifications of the tariff. Yet the Greatest Living Statesman thinks that all the trusts are private affairs, "with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere."

Mr. Blaine stated, in his speech of Friday, August 10, that the deposits in all the savings banks of Great Britain were less than in the single State of Massachusetts. In the year 1887 the amount of deposits in the savings banks of Massachusetts was $291,197,900. In Great Britain there are three classes of depositories for the savings of the frugal and industrious, which fulfil the same function as the savings banks of the United States, and the deposits or contributions to which proceed from the same source, and are in every respect similar in character. These are the savings banks under the management, as in the United States, of trustees; the Post-office Savings Banks, under the management of the Government; and the "Building" and "Friendly" Societies, also under the close supervision of the Government, and whose several liabilities and assets are returned annually under the designation of "shares," "deposits," and "profits." The official returns of the condition of the "Trustee" and "Post-office" Savings Banks for 1886 and of the "Building" and "Friendly" Societies for 1885 are as follows, the £ sterling being reckoned at $4.86.6, its real value:

Trustee Savings Banks.		
Capital (deposits).	£46,843,995	
Interest credited.	1,231,556	
Government stock held for depositors	810,128	
Total	£48,885,679=	$237,877,669
Post-office Savings Banks.		
Capital	£50,874,337	
Government st'ks held for depositors	2,896,941	
	£53,771,278=	261,671,038
Total savings-bank deposits in Great Britain in 1886		$499,548,707
Friendly and Building Societies of Great Britain.		
Value of shares, deposits not represented by shares, and balance of unappropriated profits for 1885	£52,812,281=	256,984,559
Total		$756,533,266

It thus appears that, restricting the comparison to savings banks alone, Mr. Blaine's statement had not the slightest foundation in truth, and that the depositors of the Massachusetts savings banks lacked $208,350,807 to put them on an equality with those of Great Britain, and that, counting in the value of the accumulations of the Friendly and Building Societies of Great Britain, which represent as truly and accurately the savings of the British masses as do the deposits of the savings banks, his statement contained an error of exactly $465,335,366; and that instead of the deposits of the savings banks of Massachusetts being in excess of the aggregate deposits of the United Kingdom, the masses of Great Britain have in fact about $2.59 on deposit for every $1 on deposit in Massachusetts.

There is another point of interest in connection with this matter which is well worthy the attention of those who consider Mr. Blaine a supreme authority on all points of economy and finance, and who are fond of parading contrasts between the pauper laborers of Great Britain and the workmen of the United States, who, under our high and unnecessary system of taxation, are supposed to be rolling in affluence. The aggregate deposits in the savings banks of the United States, according to the report of the Comptroller of the Currency for 1887, amount to $1,157,867,843. This, divided among our estimated population for that year of 62,000,000, would give an average of $18.66 per head. The aggregate deposits in the public savings institutions of Great Britain for 1885-6 were $756,533,266. This, divided among the population of the United Kingdom for 1886, namely, 37,000,000, would give an average of $20.97 per capita. It is, therefore, clear that any comparison of the savings-bank statistics of the United States and Great Britain will not help the high-taxation policy quite as much as Mr. Blaine expected.

If the Greatest Living Statesman had consulted Mr. Fred. E. Richards, Bank Examiner of the State of Maine, he would never have said a word on the condition of either general business or of savings institutions. There is no better test of the prosperity of a New England State than the amount of deposits in its savings banks. In Maine, reports are made semi-annually, May 1 and November 1. That for May 1, 1887, covers a period mostly included in "the year 1887," which Mr. Blaine confesses was "prosperous." The gain in deposits during that period was as follows:

Deposits November 1, 1886	$37,215,071
Deposits May 1, 1887	38,247,470
Gain	$1,032,399

The report for May 1, 1888, covers six months, of which five followed the date when "the President proposed a radical change in the industrial system which had produced that prosperity, and since that day there has been reversal and confusion in the commerce and manufactures of the United States"; and the gain in deposits during this period was as follows:

Deposits, November 1, 1887	$38,819,643
Deposits, May 1, 1888	39,871,969
Gain	$1,052,326

In other words, the savings banks of Maine—which amounts to the same thing as saying the people of Maine—have actually been

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more prosperous since the President sent in his "free-trade message" than they were a year ago!

Now that the Greatest Living Statesman is indulging in prophecy, and predicting that, if the Democrats carry the Presidential election of 1888, the factories, "if kept open, will be run at half the present wages," it is interesting to recall his prophecy as to the effect of the Presidential election of four years ago, uttered in his Augusta speech of November 18, 1884:

"With the Southern Democracy triumphant in their States and in the nation, the negro will be compelled to work for just such wages as the whites may decree—wages which will amount, as did the supplies of the slaves, to a bare subsistence, equal in cash, perhaps, to 35 cents per day, if averaged over the entire South. The white laborer of the North will soon feel the destructive effect of this upon his own wages. The Republicans have clearly seen, from the earliest days of reconstruction, that wages in the South must be raised to a just recompense of the laborer, or the wages in the North ruinously lowered, and the party have steadily worked for the former result. The reverse influence will now be set in motion, and that condition of affairs produced which, years ago, Mr. Lincoln warned the free laboring men of the North will prove hostile to their independence, and will inevitably lead to a ruinous reduction of wages."

Three years have passed since this triumph of the Democracy. So far from any of these predictions having been verified, the whole negro press at the South is celebrating the unprecedented progress made by the race in the acquisition of property during the past three years; while at the North the whole Republican argument, as urged by all the authorities from Mr. Blaine down, is that the wages of the white laborer were never so high as they are now—but that if the Democrats carry the election this year, they will be cut down one-half.

There is a general impression that business must inevitably suffer in a Presidential year. That there have been Presidential campaigns in which this was the case is generally admitted. Nor is it strange that this should have been so, for half the people in the country were long told by their political leaders that the country would go to ruin if the other party should come into power. This "scare" argument has now been conclusively answered, and no longer carries any weight. Its removal is undoubtedly one element in the present prosperous condition and outlook, which were thus set forth by the leading Republican organ of the country on Monday morning:

"The changes developed last week relating to the general conditions and prospects of commercial and mercantile communities were of a favorable character. An increased activity in general movements was reported from all quarters. The bank exchanges for last week in New York were $38,000,000 greater than for the corresponding week of last year, although the stock transactions were smaller than in the week of last year. This reflects a much greater activity in the general business of the city. There is material improvement in the condition of the iron trade, which has warranted a blowing in of numerous furnaces which for a long time have been out of blast. The coal trade never was more active, or met with a more urgent demand, than at present. The distribution of dry goods is unusually large for so early in the season, and merchants from all parts of the country speak confidently of a prosperous autumn trade. Notwithstanding unfavorable reports concerning the cereal crops, seemingly manufactured for uses at the Stock Exchange, the prospects for a fair crop of spring wheat were never better, and nothing less than a national calamity can prevent the greatest crop of corn the country has ever grown. The conditions abroad continue to indicate a large foreign demand for these crops."

Gen. Harrison had better stick to schools, home, and other such "safe" topics. He made a terrible blunder on Friday when he said: "There is not a Republican voting precinct where any man, whatever may have been his relation to the flag during the war, may not freely exercise his right to vote. There is not one such precinct where the right of a Confederate soldier freely to cast the ballot of his choice would not be defended by the Union veterans of the war." The truth is, that there is one Republican State in not one voting precinct of which can "a Confederate soldier cast the ballot of his choice," except after making humble appeal to the Legislature, and securing the passage of a special act giving him the right to vote. The Constitution of Kansas contains the following section:

"WHO NOT QUALIFIED.—Section 2. No person under guardianship, *non compos mentis*, or insane; no person convicted of felony, unless restored to civil rights; no person who has been dishonorably discharged from the service of the United States, unless reinstated; no person guilty of defrauding the Government of the United States, or any of the States thereof; no person guilty of giving or receiving a bribe, or offering to give or receive a bribe; *and no person who has ever voluntarily aided or abetted in the attempted overthrow of said Government*, except all persons who have been honorably discharged from the military service of the United States since the first day of April, A. D. 1861, provided that they have served one year or more therein, shall be qualified to vote or hold office in this State until such disability shall be removed by a law passed by a vote of two-thirds of all the members of both branches of the Legislature."

The Kansas Legislature meets only once in two years. The last session adjourned on the 5th of March, 1887, and the next will not open until January 8, 1889. No Confederate soldier who has settled in Kansas since March, 1887, can vote in November, 1888. If Senator Riddleberger of Virginia, whose vote gives the Republicans a majority in the Senate, or Judge Key, who presides over a Federal District Court in Tennessee by the appointment of a Republican President, were to resign to-day and make his home in Kansas, he would be disfranchised.

It is understood that one of the chief reasons for the disclosure of Senator Plumb's authorship of the famous quotation in the Foster "fat" circular was the disgust of Senator Edmunds at having his name associated with so egregious a blunder. Mr. Edmunds's feeling is said to have been heightened by the fact that the Mugwump editors did not know, without telling, that he "had more sense than to have written such stuff." The warmth of the Senator is natural, but we think that the mistake of the Mugwump editors was natural also. The letter told the truth about the tariff with uncommon precision and force, and the Mugwump editors have been aware for a long time that Mr. Edmunds's private correspondence was noted for just those qualities. The Vermont Senator can hardly have forgotten a certain private letter, written eight years ago, in which he described so picturesquely the rising, "musket in hand," of the Greatest Living Statesman from "behind Jay Gould's breastworks." The truth of that description was amply verified the other day, when the same Statesman showed that the same "musket" is still loaded in defence of the trusts which have been an outgrowth of the corporations since the "musket," was first shouldered in their defence. Surely the man who pointed out with such happy exactness the location of the "musket," might readily have been expected to say that "the manufacturers get practically the sole benefit" of the tariff. But what Mr. Edmunds loses in this case Mr. Plumb gains. The latter is now perceived to have powers as a letter-writer at least equal to those of his colleague, Ingalls, whose discovery that there was not one real leader among all the candidates before the Chicago Convention, and whose identification of the greatest statesman of New Jersey as "some fellow like Phelps," placed him at once in the front rank of letter-writers, ancient or modern.

That "cyclone of fear" which Chauncey Depew said last June was the only hope for the Republicans, is not sweeping the workingmen into the high-tariff party quite as fast as was expected. The Michigan State Assembly of Knights of Labor held its annual session at Detroit the other day. Circulars had been sent out requesting an expression of views on the tariff. Replies were received from 44 local assemblies, of which 8 favored absolute free trade, and 29 tariff reform as proposed by the Democratic party, while only 7 expressed any degree of favor for the present tariff. Mr. Depew, by the way, has been tendered a reception by his friends and admirers on his forthcoming return from Europe, and we shall be interested to see if it is equal in brilliancy to that which was offered to the Plumed Knight. No reception, brilliant or otherwise, has yet been tendered to Gen. Harrison in this city, and we see no way for him to get one except by taking an ocean voyage. It might be well for him to act on this suggestion, and go to Europe instead of going fishing. The National Republican Committee could doubtless get a passage for him at reduced rates, and he could return immediately on the same steamer which took him over. A reception in the harbor could then be organized, and he could thus be formally recognized as one of the leaders of his party. He might in this way work his name into the editorial columns of the New York *Tribune*.

Mr. Breckinridge of Arkansas has emphasized the issues of the present campaign by introducing five bills to repeal or reduce the duties on articles monopolized by trusts. In order to satisfy everybody, he has included the Standard Oil, the Cotton-Seed Oil, and

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the Whiskey Trusts in the scope of his measure, treating them all alike. So far so so good. But there are about forty of these Trusts and Combines now "running" the United States of America, all of which equally need the medicine that Mr. Breckinridge offers to the Sugar Trust, the Bagging Trust, etc. Let us have bills for all of them, and let us have votes on the bills. It should be observed that Mr. Breckinridge leaves a modicum of protection for the Sugar Trust that would have been considered sufficient for all purposes at any former period of our history, and would be so considered now but for the plank in the Chicago platform which forbids *any* reduction of protective duties whatever.

It has been discovered in Washington by some intricate process that, although the official estimates of appropriations for the fiscal year 1889, including the sinking fund, were only $326,530,793, the actual appropriations are or will be $428,269,520. For the fiscal year 1888 the actual expenditures were $316,817,785. According to this showing, the cost of carrying on the Government has increased more than $100,000,000 in one year. This, if true, is the most alarming result of the surplus revenue that could be imagined, since it betokens an irresistible impulse towards extravagance and waste of the taxpayers' money. Better, far better, a financial panic, with its sobering lessons, than a system whose central idea and governing motive is to make the national expenditure equal to the national income. It is noted in connection with this sudden swelling of the expense account that several Republican Senators think that no tariff bill is necessary, since the surplus for the coming year will be only $12,294,213. What were these wise men thinking about when they met at Mr. Evarts's house and resolved to report and pass a bill to reduce the revenue? Did they not then know that the appropriations would swallow up the whole of it, or could be made to do so by a vigorous effort?

Mr. Powderly and Mr. George are discussing the subject of restricting immigration. Mr. Powderly, in the *North American Review*, protests against having "the surplus population of Europe transported to this country," and complains of people, like the Italians, Hungarians, and Poles, who, he says, are crowded together and live meanly; do not wash themselves enough; have "dining-room, smoking-room, sitting-room, kitchen, and bed-chamber all in one"; work cheaply, and send their money home; fill almshouses and prisons; and cannot understand our institutions nor appreciate our liberty, but are naturally serfs. Mr. George retorts in the *Standard* that Mr. Powderly is himself the son of an Irishman, and that precisely the same charges which he now brings against the Italians, Hungarians, and Poles were brought against the Irish a generation ago, as everybody who has reached middle life well remembers.

Gov. Hill said, in his interesting statement about his two personal campaign notes, for $15,000:

"Near the close of the campaign of 1885 the Democratic State Committee were short of funds, and appealed to me to aid them. I consented to lend them my credit, and, together with Judge Alton B. Parker and Judge W. L. Muller, the Chairman and Secretary of the Executive Committee, I signed a note with them as joint makers for $5,000, which Mr. John Keenan of New York, also a member of the State Committee and a prominent County Democracy man, then of excellent reputation, cashed for the Committee, which received and used the avails in the canvass. I also, upon a like request, signed another note for $10,000, which was endorsed by my friend, Judge Muller, the Secretary, and also (as I subsequently learned) by Mr. John O'Brien, the Chairman of the State Committee."

He did not explain that neither Parker nor Muller had the title of "Judge" at that time, nor did he state that it was he himself who gave them the title. It is a fact, however, that he appointed Mr. Parker a Justice of the Supreme Court for the Third District of New York and Mr. Muller Judge of the Court of Claims, after their friendly conduct in endorsing his note. It is also a fact that on May 17, 1886, four days after he signed the aqueduct "deal" bill, he appointed O'Brien (who paid the $10,000 note out of the $30,000 which had been taken from the city treasury unjustifiably on the contract for Section 12), Receiver for the Broadway Railway. O'Brien was at that time both Chairman of the Democratic State Committee and chief aqueduct contractor. The Governor rewarded him more handsomely than he did Messrs. Parker and Muller, but then O'Brien had done more. In all cases the reward came out of the public service.

A cablegram from London says that M. Goblet has instructed the French representative in the Sugar Bounties Conference not to sign the agreement unless the United States Government signs it also. This decision on the part of France is looked upon as fatal to any agreement, but we do not see why it should be so. We were not aware that any attempt had been made to bring this country into the conference, but if such an attempt has been made, it was quite reasonable. The United States has the power commercially to bring the conference agreement to naught at any time. She can pour bounty sugar enough into the London market to bankrupt every foreign refinery that depends upon that market. It is believed that the drawback system that prevailed before the present Administration came in, did amount to a bounty on the export of sugar. There is no guarantee, so far as foreign Governments are concerned, that the drawback may not be increased at any moment. Therefore, France is quite justified in the condition which she annexes to her own signing of the agreement. We see no reason why we should not sign it also. We can see many reasons why our sugar-refiners should be willing to have it signed, for sooner or later our sugar duties will be repealed, and then they will be brought into competition with France and Germany. If the duties should be repealed in a gust of passion, as the duty on quinine was a few years ago, Congress would make no account of foreign bounties, any more than it made account of the duty on the raw material of quinine. It is, therefore, for the interest of the Sugar Trust to have export bounties abolished all over the world as speedily as possible.

Had an enthusiastic advocate of union between the different churches of Christendom prophesied, only twenty-five years ago, that a time was not far distant when an English society, composed mainly of Dissenters and Quakers, should be convened to hear an address from a foreign Roman Catholic prelate, and that a resolution in response to that address, moved by the head of the English branch of that church, and seconded by a Bishop of the English Church, should be carried unanimously, he would have been laughed to scorn. Yet all this happened in London on July 31, when Cardinal Lavigerie (Archbishop of Algiers and Carthage) addressed the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society on the African slave trade. The Cardinal, who has undertaken to preach a crusade against this desolating traffic in every capital in Europe, presented no new facts, but confined himself almost wholly to a description of the methods of the Arab slavers and the sufferings of their wretched victims. As a companion picture to Prof. Drummond's statement that there are districts in Africa "where *three* natives cannot be sent a message in case two should combine and sell the third before they return," may be put this drawn by the Cardinal: "Every woman, every child, that strays ten minutes away from their village [in the vicinity of the great lakes] has no certainty of ever returning to it." Cardinal Manning moved the first resolution, "urging the governments of Europe to bring the pressure of public opinion to bear upon the rulers of all countries where slavery exists," which was seconded by Bishop Smythies of the Universities Mission to Central Africa. A resolution of similar purport was moved by the Rev. H. Waller, Dr. Livingstone's editor, and seconded by Lieut. Cameron.

A cable despatch to the *Sun* says: "Providence seems decided to watch over the grand old engineer De Lesseps—that is to say, if Providence may be imagined to take an interest in the game of chance in Panama. In the lottery the two first numbers drawn were found to be on shares unplaced, so that the biggest prizes of £20,000 and £4.000 respectively will not have to be paid." This is a two-edged sword. The company's 780,000 bonds, and the syndicate's 420,000, will *not* find a market very readily if they take most of the important prizes. Of course, their chances outweigh those of all the other holders of these bonds, by any calculation. A public suspicion that the control of the lottery machinery is a dangerous temptation to a needy concern, will render the bonds utterly unsalable. M. de Lesseps, in his annual report, said that the work could not go on unless they were sold. They are advertised for sale wherever the company has an agency. A kinder dispensation would have allotted the capital prize to the *Petit Journal* or *Figaro*. That would have given an impetus to the sale of bonds which would have far exceeded in value the prizes the company has drawn.

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MR. BLAINE ON "TRUSTS."

THE National Republican Committee's doubts about the advisability of putting Mr. Blaine on the stump in the West are not likely to be quieted by his remarkable views on "trusts," as set forth in his Portland speech on Wednesday week. We quote the passage:

"When President Cleveland delivered his message, he had something to say to the American people about the danger of 'trusts.' I think there have since been no Democratic papers in the country, whether they understood the meaning of the word or not, that have not been constantly warning the people as to the horrible danger of 'trusts.' Well, I shall not discuss trusts this afternoon. I shall not venture to say that they are altogether advantageous or disadvantageous. *They are largely private affairs, with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere.*"

Mr. Blaine went on to say that, aside from this point, he desired to impress upon his hearers the fact that trusts were not the outgrowth of the protective system, because England, under a system of free trade, was "literally plastered all over with trusts." As proof of this, he cited an article which he had found in a London newspaper, announcing that all the manufacturers of coffins and all the undertakers of the United Kingdom had formed a trust with $2,000,000 capital.

We will not dwell upon the question whether the proof which Mr. Blaine cites in support of his assertion that England is "literally plastered all over with trusts," is adequate or not. If it be accepted as adequate, it puts Mr. Blaine in the position of maintaining that free-trade trusts are no more objectionable than protection trusts, and strengthens his main contention that trusts "are largely private affairs, with which neither President Cleveland nor any private citizen has any particular right to interfere." This is a very different view from that taken by the Republican platform, upon which Harrison and Morton are standing; but as Harrison himself declares Mr. Blaine to be a "matchless defender of Republican principles," it may have to be taken as orthodox during the campaign. The platform says:

"We declare our opposition to all combinations of capital organized in trusts or otherwise, to control arbitrarily the condition of trade among our citizens, and we commend to Congress and the State Legislatures, in their respective jurisdictions, such legislation as will prevent the execution of *all schemes to oppress the people by undue charges on their supplies, or by unjust rates for the transportation of their products to market.*"

It is nobody's business, in Mr. Blaine's opinion, if the people are "oppressed by undue charges on their supplies"; that is the "private affair" of the enterprising capitalists who organize the trust which decrees the "unjust charges." Of course, then, Congress and the State Legislatures have no business to meddle with it, and the Republican national platform commits an impertinence by directing them to do so. There is nothing to do, in Mr. Blaine's opinion, but to let trusts alone; for, after citing his proof of the coffin trust in England, he says: "Now I think, my friends, that we might safely bury all the President's predictions of evil from trusts in this country in the graves in which those coffins are about to go." Of course, the denunciation in the Republican platform will have to be buried there also. The party must either follow its greatest leader, or part with him.

Nobody will deny that if Mr. Blaine knew that the Republican platform contained a denunciation of trusts, as "schemes to oppress the people by undue charges on their supplies," he must also have known that, in coming to the defence of trusts, and in ridiculing President Cleveland and the Democratic press for opposing them, he was injuring his own party and its chances in the election. Yet there is direct evidence that he had read the platform carefully. It will be remembered that the platform was adopted several days before the nominations were made. It was cabled in full to the London press on June 21; and on June 22, the correspondent of the *World*, who was on very friendly terms with the Carnegie coaching party, sent an account of the day's proceedings in which he said:

"Mr. Carnegie carries a copy of the Republican platform as adopted in Chicago, and cherishes it with tender regard. 'What do I think of it?' he said. 'Why, it is the finest platform that was ever constructed. When *we* [Carnegie and Blaine] read it over again last night at Jedburgh, *we* came to the conclusion that there was not even a single particle that we would wish to have altered.'"

If Mr. Blaine went over the platform so carefully then with Mr. Carnegie, it is scarcely possible that the plank denouncing trusts escaped his eye; but if it did, how could he have failed to have his attention directed to it when he read the New York *Tribune's* comments on the platform?—for, of course, he must have read them. In its headline over the text of the platform, in its issue of June 22, the *Tribune* called especial attention to the fact that trusts were "condemned," and editorially, on the same date, it said:

"It is a grand platform, because it utters plainly the hostility of the Republican party to *those Trusts and combinations by which the best fruits of the protective system are in some cases denied to consumers.*"

What explanation, then, can be given of the Portland speech? Mr. Blaine spoke deliberately, and revised the report carefully before giving it to the press. He is too sharp a politician not to have calculated the effect of his words. Taken in connection with the extraordinary conduct of his friends in the press since Harrison's nomination, and in connection with the personal ovation which has been given him by his followers here and in other cities since his return; to the complete obliteration of Harrison, his deliverance makes but one impression, namely, that he and his friends have no love for the Chicago platform or its candidates, and are determined to defeat them. No more deadly thrust at the Republican or any other candidate could be aimed, at this time, than to make him the champion and defender of the oppressive and hated trusts. When Mr. Blaine did that service for Harrison, he put the "knife" deep into his vitals. The party must henceforth either pull with Blaine and Trusts against Harrison and his platform, or it must repudiate Blaine and Trusts and thus split itself in twain. The "aut Blaine aut nullus" policy is in full operation.

ENGLISH FOREIGN MAILS.

THE only respect in which England will not have to serve the protectionist orator, until November, as a fearful example, is in her policy of liberal payment for carrying her foreign mails. Both those, like Mr. H. K. Thurber who fear the word "subsidy," and those, like Gen. Harrison, who have lost all fear of that term, are agreed that the thing for us to do is to imitate the English plan. Exactly what that plan is, and why it was adopted, they are not careful to state. Indeed, it is to be feared, from their vague statements, that they do not know. For the sake of their good faith, it is to be hoped that they do not, and that some of their positive assertions are made in ignorance. At any rate, it is worth while to set forth the facts and their explanation once more.

It is unquestioned that England expends large sums on her foreign mail service. From the estimates submitted to Parliament by the Post-office for the year ending March 31, 1887, we find that the following sums were called for, the grouping being by continents:

Europe	$91,000
Africa	58,620
America	1,078,125
Asia	1,799,000
Total	$3,026,745

The cost of the packet service within the United Kingdom, $611,560, is not reckoned in, of course.

It is only since 1860 that the Post-office has had the letting of contracts for carrying foreign mails. Before that date the matter was in the control of the Lords of the Admiralty. Under their management the cost to the country was as much as $5,000,000 yearly, with great incidental favoritism and corruption. As the result of a Parliamentary inquiry, the whole thing was put in charge of the Post-office, in the year named. Business methods were immediately adopted. Competition was open, penalties for non-fulfilment of contract were rigidly exacted, and the consequent economy at once became apparent. No special appropriations are made to cover the cost of the foreign mail service, as it is paid out of the general Post-office surplus, which is about $15,000,000 a year, and steadily increasing. In fact, the whole cost is nearly earned by the postage on the mail matter carried, added to the colonial repayments hereafter to be mentioned. Last year all but $200,000 of the total expense was earned.

Now the subsidy advocates who argue that the sole reason for the enormous growth of English shipping, in the last thirty years, is the obtaining of mail contracts by a few lines, make complete oversight of many things in the situation. England is paying now, as we have shown, only about half as much for this purpose as in the days of sailing vessels. But American sailing vessels more than held their own then. The English "subsidies," which existed then, if ever, did not drive the Americans from the ocean, nor did they have any marked effect in expanding the shipping of England. The man who fixes his eye on mail contracts, and will not see the immensely more potent influence of the change from sails to steam,

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and from wood to iron, and of our insane refusal to buy what we cannot build, seizes upon an incidental cause, and lets the main ones go. Where England has one subsidized line, so called, she has a score unsubsidized. For a long time, at the beginning of experiments in steam navigation, it was doubtful if Government aid would not be indispensable. The Inman Line was the first to demonstrate, in 1857, that steamships could be run at a profit. After that, hundreds of other lines were established.

England meets two great needs of her imperial Government by means of her large payments for carrying foreign mails. One is the need of rapid and regular communication with her colonial dependencies. That this is one aim in the establishment of the packet service is seen clearly in the terms of the contracts let. Official despatches are to be carried free. Severe penalties are provided for every hour of delay beyond the advertised schedule of trips, and the schedule is figured to a finer point every year. That this service is largely for the sake of the colonies is seen in the fact that they have to foot a part of the bill. The estimated repayments from the colonies for the year we refer to amounted to no less than $518,800—over one-sixth of the total outlay. These repayments are turned into the exchequer as extra receipts, though really, of course, they diminish the cost of the service by so much.

Another need of the Empire is swift cruisers for use in time of war. The mail steamers supply this. By the terms of the contracts, they can all be taken by the Government on short notice. In the Egyptian campaign of 1882, for example, several of the magnificent Peninsular and Oriental liners were used as transports for troops and stores to help in the subjugation of Arabi.

We are aware that our remarks will seem quite beside the point to the protectionist reader who has been carefully educated to believe that these English payments for carrying the mails are made with main reference to the extension of English trade. It only remains, therefore, to show by a comparison of the payments with the trade how utterly impossible it is that the protectionist theory of the relations of the two should be correct. England's trade with Europe is about two and one-half times her trade with Asia; but she pays to the lines of steamers running to Asian ports about twenty times as much as to lines plying between England and European ports. Moral: There are English colonies in Asia, and none in Europe. But the objection will be made that the cases cited are too far away, and the disparity of distance too great. Take two countries about equally separated from England—the United States and the West Indies. With the former, England's trade is about thirty times what it is with the latter; but the steamers carrying the West Indian mail receive within $35,000 as much as those carrying the mails to the United States, or $465,000, as against $500,000. If any man can say, after comparing these figures, that England's motive in paying generously for the carriage of her ocean mails is not what she says it is, to keep up communication with her colonies and have a naval reserve at her disposal, but to foster trade and crush out competition, he will be able to claim an altogether new ingenuity in making figures lie.

Now, the United States are under no obligation, as a home Government, to keep in touch with colonial dependencies. If we want a naval reserve, it will be better to pay for it and maintain it outright, instead of hiring men to sail over the ocean to nowhere in particular, with nothing in particular to carry as a cargo. It would be simply impossible for our Government to let contracts for the foreign mail in the way observed by the English Post-office. There could be no competition in the bidding with us. This was the special absurdity of the law of March 3, 1885. As Mr. Vilas showed, it provided for competition where as a matter of fact there could be none. Only for a part of the way over two routes was there a possibility of competing companies bidding against each other. We may add that, by a subsequent consolidation, the possibility of competition has been reduced to only one route. The appropriation of $400,000 in 1885 was meant as a gift outright, and so the companies thought, to judge by the way they all hastened to claim their share. The same thing would be true of any appropriation now. Altogether, we think the protectionist orator had better go the whole figure, and maintain that English policy is detestable in every particular, not even excepting her foreign mail service.

THE ECONOMISTS AND THE SENTIMENTALISTS.

In the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Mr. F. J. Stimson has undertaken to give us a summary of Ruskin's contributions to Economics. The article is interesting, and is enlivened by numerous quotations of telling passages from Ruskin. If we were called upon to point out a single character which, more than any other, constitutes the difference between Ruskin's discussions of economic subjects and the discussions of the recognized economists, we should say it was that he is continually dealing with ends, and they with means. The operation of causes has always been the subject of their inquiry; the desirability of results is the constant text of his sermons. The former is the legitimate province of science; and, so far as political economy has any claim to the name of science, it is on account of such success, however imperfect, as its students have had in determining the operation of causes in the economic world. All of Ruskin's criticism is rendered worthless—worthless as criticism, however suggestive in other ways—by his apparently total failure to realize the nature of the problems which it has been the business of economists to consider.

The reasons which Ruskin has given for denying that political economy is a science are numerous, but they may be exemplified by a few citations. "It has omitted the study of exactly the most important branch of the business—the study of *spending*." It has not ventured to pronounce judgment on the land question, although it is "the nearest task of our day to discover how far original theft may be justly encountered by reactionary theft, or whether reactionary theft be theft at all." But perhaps most of all he would base his denial on the fact that the economists' discussion of value is confined to exchange value, while the kind of value which Ruskin thinks they ought to have considered is defined thus: "Value is the life-giving power of anything"; by "life" being understood "the happiness and power of the entire human nature, body and soul." All this is much as if one were to say that medicine is no science because it has not undertaken to say what kind of lives are worth living, or to prescribe the degree of sacrifice which is due from the well to the sick.

No charge that has been brought against Ruskin's economic utterances has been more resented by him than the charge of sentimentalism. Like all words that have long played the part of catchwords in great controversies, "sentimentalist" is a title of very vague meaning. Ruskin's ideal of what men ought to be and to do in their economic relations is anything but sentimental, in the sense of weak or effeminate or even unnatural; the underlying reason for the attribution of the name "sentimentalist" to economic writers of Ruskin's stamp is the fact that they propose ends to be attained by human beings, without troubling themselves to consider the means by which human beings can be impelled to action. As one reads 'Unto this Last' or 'Munera Pulveris' from cover to cover, one is amazed to find a writer of such force and a thinker of such insight complaining constantly of the social arrangements of England, laying the blame of them incessantly and with childish petulance upon English economists, and not giving the least intimation of any measure or policy which should have any tendency to alter them. From first to last we have the irresponsible judgments of a sentimentalist—that is, of a man who gives expression to his likes and dislikes, and does not feel called upon to analyze the evils he attacks or to consider the actual operation of the causes which affect them.

Two examples may serve to illustrate this attitude: "I am and always have been," says Ruskin, "an utterly fearless and unscrupulous free-trader. . . . Let other nations, if they like, keep their ports shut. Every wise nation will throw its own open." Having thus given vent to his feelings on the subject of free trade, he seems to be no longer concerned with the matter. He rails at the state of England; her factories, her smoky cities, are an abomination to him; "the tendency of the entire national energy is, therefore, to approximate more and more to the state of a squirrel in a cage, or a turnspit in a wheel, fed by foreign masters with nuts and dog's-meat." The essence of the matter is that free trade pleases him and factories offend him. That the abrogation of the corn laws has a causal connection with the increase of factories, does not seem to disturb his mind at all. Again, on the subject

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of population, which occupies the closing pages of 'Unto This Last,' Ruskin says: "In all the ranges of human thought I know none so melancholy as the speculations of political economists on the population question." Ruskin does not mean by this that the speculations are "melancholy" as being erroneous, for in the sentences that follow he subscribes to the crudest and most extreme statement of Malthusian doctrine. As to the facts, they were so "melancholy" to Malthus that he could only find comfort in such features of the situation as gave promise of men's improvement in foresight and prudence; while Ruskin dispels the melancholy of the subject by turning his face away from the facts, and indulging in the contemplation of a "wise population" engaged in "the search for felicity as well as food," by whom "it will be found at last that all lovely things are also necessary—the wild flower by the wayside as well as the tended corn; and the wild birds and creatures of the forest as well as the tended cattle; because man doth not live by bread only, but also by the desert manna—by every wondrous word and unknowable work of God."

It seems to be a necessary accompaniment of this irresponsible frame of mind that sentimentalists should be bereft of all sense of proportion and even of common sanity of judgment when considering the work of scientific students. It is almost incredible that any one should suppose that selfishness and trickery and avarice have been advocated by the economists; but Ruskin does this and more: he continually writes as if these vices had to a great extent been actually created by them. He says "that this which they have called commerce is no commerce at all, but cozening, and that a true merchant differs as much from a merchant according to laws of modern political economy as the hero of the 'Excursion' from *Autolycus*." He speaks of the passion for luxury in furniture and dress being, "for the most part, provoked by economists, as advantageous to commerce"; and, to quote what is at once the most extravagant and the most incomprehensible passage of this kind that we have encountered, he says (in 'Munera Pulveris,' 1871): "Meantime, the theories of 'international values,' as explained by Modern Political Economy, have brought about last year's pillage of France by Germany, and the affectionate relations now existing in consequence between the inhabitants of the right and left banks of the Rhine."

Mr. Stimson urges, reasonably enough, that it is not by the childish and absurd opinions which he occasionally expresses that Ruskin should be judged as an economist. Nor do we judge him by them; but it is evident to us that they are only extravagant specimens of what naturally results from the false notions of economic research which pervade all his writing on that subject, and which are found in sufficient abundance in the works of more scholastic writers in whom the sentimentalist spirit is less apparent. What sober economists have endeavored to do is to gain a deeper insight into the working of the forces which make the economic world what it is, and into the agencies by which the operation of these forces may be modified. Most of the English economists whose work has produced an abiding impression have been men deeply devoted to the welfare of their fellows; some, like Mill, have expressed the profoundest abhorrence of the injustice of existing conditions, and have looked forward hopefully to a better time coming; but all have felt that their task as economists was simply to understand as clearly as possible the causes that determine economic phenomena. It may be that to do this is not to have a lofty mission; but as long as men love the light, there will be found those who will admire the thinkers that have earnestly striven to see without daring to pronounce judgment, however much they may be despised by the prophets who pronounce judgment without patient endeavor to see.

ARCHÆOLOGISTS VS. EXPERTS.

In a recent number of the *Classical Review*, M. Salomon Reinach summarizes the history of his attacks upon the authenticity of the terracotta groups which, during the last eight years, have been offered in the various European markets as "Cymæan," "Myrinæan," "Ephesian," and lately more vaguely described as "Asiatic"; and with justifiable pride enumerates his triumphs over many of the leading archæologists who, at first discrediting his opinions, have gradually been won over to his side during a long controversy, the spirit of which has not been wholly scientific. The case is by no means closed yet. There are still a number of authorities eager to maintain the authenticity of the groups in question, as the correspondence in the London *Athenæum* during the month of June shows; but the fact that the directors of the Berlin Museum have been convinced—though, as we imagine, strongly against their will—and that some of the most beautiful terracottas in that and other German museums have been withdrawn from the showcases as modern forgeries, is in itself a victory of no mean importance. We confess that it is not without regret that we see such gems as the famous Charon group, and the Ganymede and the Eagle, among the convicted class, for they ranked with the most beautiful terracottas in any collection; but great is truth, and they have gone where they belong, while we are left to moralize upon the fact that their beauty made them the more deceptive.

With the main issue of the controversy we have little to do. At this distance, and with the very slender opportunities which Americans have at best to examine and handle these objects, as compared with the opportunities of almost every European scholar, it would be idle to sit in judgment upon the arguments of M. Reinach and his opponents; but the discussion contains two lessons which, it seems to us, should be brought home to every American collector, and to every American student of archæology. The first of these is with regard to the danger of purchasing so-called Greek terracottas without the assistance of the very best experts in such matters. The fact that the agents and officers of the great museums of Europe have been repeatedly duped in their purchases, should serve as a serious warning to travellers and amateurs from this country. The forgeries of terracottas nowadays are so clever as to defy everything but the most expert and intimate knowledge of the tricks by which they are produced, and there are, in any part of the world, few disinterested people to whom these tricks are familiar. So perfect is the imitation of all visual evidences of antiquity which has now been attained in this rascally craft, that we might almost say the appearance of an object is no indication whatever of its genuineness; and the Charon group, above alluded to, so skilfully reproduces the spirit and the manner of real Greek art that it was not only purchased by the Berlin Museum at a very large price, but described at length in the *Archäologische Zeitung* by one of the first of German archæologists.

We urge the warning thus strongly because the question is one of great importance to the future knowledge and appreciation of Greek art in this country. The museums which are springing up in all parts of the United States will probably sooner or later be made the receptacles of the countless works of art of all ages which now are pouring into the country year by year. It is well known among unscrupulous dealers that Americans, as a class, are the easiest people in the world to impose upon; and it is certain that a very large proportion of the spurious antiquities sold in Athens, Italy, Paris, London, and elsewhere, find their way to this country. Now if these remain in private hands, it is unfortunate—unfortunate for the possessor, and unfortunate for his friends who admire an object for what it is not. But when these objects appear in museums, as they are constantly doing by gift, loan, sale, or bequest, the misfortune becomes a public one. Unless the authorities of the institution have access to higher expert assistance than is yet obtainable in this country, they are themselves liable to deception; and the imposition, through no fault of theirs, affects the public whom the museum is intended to educate. For their own sakes, therefore, and in the interest of all lovers of ancient art, we cannot too strongly impress upon travellers who are tempted to purchase those charming relics of Greek life, the necessity of consulting some person of acknowledged authority before doing so, and of mistrusting any extraordinary circumstances attending the opportunity to purchase. One of the commonest tricks of the trade is to bury the forgeries in some obscure village in Greece or Italy which is likely to be passed through by travellers, and then excavate them in the presence of an enthusiastic "milord" or American, who is naturally not slow to buy what he has "seen dug up with his own eyes."

The second lesson enforced by this controversy is one which both students and those who make use of their knowledge would do well to take to heart, and that is that an archæologist and an expert are two entirely distinct beings. Their training is different, their knowledge is different, and the two are very rarely combined, in anything like perfection, in the same person. The knowledge of an archæologist is largely theoretic, his training academic. His ambition is to know, down to the minutest point, the characteristics of all the schools and epochs of the branch or branches of art to which he gives his attention. In the matter of terracottas it would be to recognize at a glance the locality and date in which a given figure originated, provided it were genuine, and the artist under whose influence it was created. If the figure displays anachronisms or other anomalies, his suspicion of its authenticity may be aroused, and then he displays one element of the expert; but this is one element of many, and the counterfeiters are no longer caught in this trap as often as they used to be.

On the other hand, the knowledge of the expert must be, first of all, practical. He need know nothing of schools and epochs, archaic

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and Hellenistic, may be one and the same to him; but he must know what is really ancient and what is a lie. His training is experience in handling, finding, buying, and, more's the pity, often in forging on his own account. In short, his is the knowledge of the dealer, not the scholar—and the dealer up to all the tricks of his trade. An incident which occurred at Smyrna not many years since is strikingly illustrative of this point. The representative there of a large European museum was offered a fragment of a very beautiful bronze statue by a peasant from the interior of the country. The gentleman, who is an archæologist of great reputation, examined the fragment carefully, tested it by every device he knew and found it satisfactory. Fearing, however, that its remarkable beauty might have upset his judgment, he decided to refer it to the agent of another museum before buying. They went over it carefully together, and after much deliberation decided that there was no reason to doubt its genuineness. To make the matter sure, they determined to take it to an ally of theirs, an ignorant old Jew who kept a small shop in the bazaar, on whose honesty they had good reason to rely. The Jew took the fragment, scanned it critically a moment, rapped on it two or three times, and then handed it back with a reproach to them both for not knowing it for a forgery at first sight. Subsequent experiment showed that he was right.

A few of the great museums of Europe are fortunate in possessing men who are at the same time archæologists and experts of great skill, but they might almost be counted on both hands, and it is only in institutions like those, where the academic knowledge is required at the outset, and where the practical comes from the constant handling of the thousands of objects in the collections and offered to them, that both sides of the man can be developed. In this country, at least for the present, the archæological is the only side that we can hope to see carried to a high degree of perfection, and for this we have the most encouraging indications; but for the other—the expert—knowledge we must rely upon our friends across the ocean until our own collections shall be much larger and much richer in original antiquities.

SHERRYLAND AND CADIZ.

BARCELONA, June 26.

IN going from Seville to Cadiz, tourists have the choice between rail and river. A careless perusal of De Amicis's lively description of his journey down the Guadalquivir might induce one to try the steamboat; but on closer examination it becomes apparent that De Amicis derived less amusement from the river scenery than from a company of Italian comedians who happened to be aboard. Moreover, the well-posted Ford admits that an actual acquaintance with the far-famed Guadalquivir dispels any illusion which the native poets have conjured up: "This 'pellucid river' is in sober reality as dull and dirty as the Thames at Sheerness. The turbid stream slowly eats its way through an alluvial level given up to herds of cattle and aquatic fowls; nothing can be more dreary; white sails occasionally enliven the silent waters, but no villages cheer the desert steppes." At Seville itself nothing appears more uninviting than this narrow, dirty, yellow stream, which both Moors and gypsies united in calling "the great river"—a name which it might have better deserved in the Roman period, when Spain had more forests and this river was navigable as far as Cordova. Under these circumstances, I resolved to follow the implied advice of the practical Englishman rather than that of the imaginative Italian, and took the railway; nor did I regret it, for although there are neither forests nor mountains between Seville and Cadiz, there is more to see that is novel than between any other two Spanish cities.

The immediate surroundings of Seville are green with gardens and vineyards, and olive and orange orchards. But the higher vegetation soon disappears, and the ground becomes level and marshy. Here, then, are bred those huge mosquitoes which pester one so in Seville, and which would win the prize in a musical and knightly contest with their Jersey and Long Island cousins. Still, there is plenty of grass, and every ten minutes may be seen a flock of sheep, or herds of cattle and horses. Here the Andalusian bull grazes peacefully, without dreaming of molesting the poor horses not far away. He is, in fact, ordinarily a harmless enough animal, and often, indeed, has to be tormented with sharp sticks and acids before he gets up enough ferocity to go into the ring in becoming style. I could not help thinking that these animals must suffer from the fierce sun and the sultry evaporations from the marshy soils on summer afternoons. As far as the eye can reach there is not a tree, nor even a brush to afford any shade. I now began to understand why the peasants, in coming to Seville or resting anywhere, take no pains to put their donkeys in the shade, but leave them in the broiling sun. It seemed cruel, but those animals, bred in the treeless plains, obviously don't know what shade is, and might possibly shy at it the first time! Some of them, however, might have come near one of those wooden boxes, ten feet high and five or six in width, which are the homes of the solitary men placed along the line of the railway at intervals. No fences are to be seen anywhere, but a hedge of cactus follows the road on both sides, its object being apparently to prevent the cattle from getting on the track. These hedgerows of prickly pear, with their yellow flowers, make lovely fences, nor do they, like other fences, need any spikes and broken glass on the top to prevent small boys from climbing over them. They are quite able to take care of themselves.

For miles and miles these are the only scenic features, excepting an occasional straw hut, a pool of stagnant water, or a wheat field which would seem big to one who had never been in our Western States. When the train stopped at the first station, everybody rushed to the windows, attracted by an extraordinary chaos of vociferation. I thought an accident had happened, but the mystery was soon explained. Our train was filled with soldiers returning home, and at every stopping-place the relatives had assembled to receive them. To judge by the truly Southern warmth of the receptions, they must have been absent a long time, for the mothers actually shrieked with delight. Other nations may be equally affectionate, but certainly they give no such evidence of it in public as these Spanish villagers and peasants did. Fathers, mothers, sisters, cousins, aunts, and sweethearts fairly fought for the soldiers as soon as they had stepped off the cars, and almost tore their uniforms from their bodies in their eagerness to get the first kiss and the first embrace. Finally, as the train moved away, they were seen dragging their hero homeward, the father's arm round the neck, the mother's round the waist, and the younger women carrying off his baggage triumphantly. The same scenes were enacted at the other stations, and I thus had an opportunity of seeing these country people such as one ordinarily gets only at the religious festivals.

As we approached Jerez, the home of the wine whose name the English have corrupted into Sherry because that is easier to pronounce than *Hăreth*, the landscape, by a curious coincidence, became somewhat rolling, as in England, though without England's chief ornament—a treeless England. The vineyards immediately about Jerez are, however, flat, and I was told that the vines need no irrigation. I stopped over between two trains in order to see one or two of the famous bodegas, which are the only remarkable sights in this city of almost 60,000 inhabitants, many of whom are English or semi-English. The extraordinary ignorance of the ordinary Spaniard may be inferred from the fact that I had to ask three persons before I succeeded in being directed to the largest of these wine-firms—the industry to which Jerez owes its name and prosperity! In this establishment 700 workmen are employed at some seasons, everything being made on the premises, including the barrels. The wood for these barrels, however, has to be imported from America. Spain has only a quarter as much forest as Prussia, and less than half as much as Italy or France, and this scarcity of wood has for a long time seriously injured the ordinary Spanish wine trade, for the smaller wine-growers, being unable to purchase expensive casks, have been obliged to keep their wine in pig-skins, which, with the pitch that is used to stop up cracks, gives it such a disagreeable flavor that although the wine is intrinsically good—especially the Val de Peñas—one can hardly drink it until one has become reconciled to that gastronomic dissonance.

The danger of writing on a subject concerning which one is ignorant is illustrated by the remark in Mr. E. E. Hale's 'Seven Spanish Cities,' that "the guide-books and other superficial critics say that if more care were taken, the rough Spanish *vin du pays* might be much better than it is. But for me, I take such criticisms with a good deal of caution. I think the people on the ground are apt to understand their own business better than travellers do." But the *fact* is that they do *not*, as a rule, understand their business, although lately some of the larger growers have followed the example of foreigners who came and made excellent wines in Spain, by excluding unripe and inferior berries and tabooing the pig-skins. The ordinary Spaniard does not object to the pitch flavor of his *vin ordinaire*, simply because his gastronomic taste is not educated. As the famous Spanish novelist Mateo Aleman remarked two centuries and a half ago, these people "eat everything, as it were, with a garlic-tooth. . . . There are but few of them in whom the senses arrive at any perfection. . . . They are like dogs that devour the meat without tasting; or like the ostrich, that can swallow a red-hot horse-shoe." It is the same with olive oil as with wine. An English merchant at Seville told me that Spanish olive oil would be the best in the world if they knew how to make it. As it is, it has, like the ordinary wine, such a disagreeable flavor that most of it is unfit to export, and at the best restaurants in Spain a bottle of French olive oil is kept ostentatiously on the table for fastidious customers. Obviously, education would be wealth to the Spaniards. But they lack not only knowledge but capital and enterprise, and the result is that foreigners are at present invading Spain *en masse*, and working the rich mines in the mountains and the olive groves and vineyards.

To return for a moment to sherry—*that* wine does not suffer from slovenly manufacture and pig-skin storage. It has another enemy, more serious even than ignorance, and that is adul-

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teration. There has never been a better illustration of the fact that honesty is the best policy—in the long run—than the fate of the sherry industry. Everybody knows what fortunes have been made on sherry wine; but those times seem to be past. Mr. Ingraham, the American Consul at Cadiz, prints in one of his reports the translation of a letter written by the Mayor of Jerez to the Civil Governor of the province of Cadiz. The Mayor complains that the condition of the wine trade in Jerez could not be more deplorable than it is. Capital bears no interest, the vineyards have no value, and the town has become poor. Twenty years ago 80 to 90 francs were paid per hectolitre, now only 13 to 14. The key to the change thus deplored by the Mayor lies in the fact that some firms began to import German alcohol, and to manufacture a vile, cheap compound which has injured the popularity of the wine and limited the sale of genuine sherry, which cannot be sold at any such price. Good sherry is still to be had—I tasted some excellent samples—but there is little market for it. The extent to which the adulteration of Spanish wine is carried on may be inferred from the fact that *twelve million dollars'* worth of German alcohol (made of potatoes and beets) is imported into Spain annually, of which Cadiz alone (the port of Jerez) got $880,000 in 1886! Thus the change from honest sherry to the rank compound of villanous stuffs usually served up under that name has benefited no one but the German distillers. It would seem as if a remedy for this state of affairs might be found.

After leaving Jerez, with its (literally) miles of sherry barrels piled up in rows like cannon balls, the proximity of the seacoast soon makes itself evident in the saline marshes and the breezes redolent of salt water and seaweeds. At Seville one sees at almost every street corner a man or woman with a basket filled with moderately sized lobster-like claws, which are eaten with great avidity by the Spaniards of all classes. And no wonder, for they are excellent—much better than real lobsters, and almost as delicate in flavor as the "Oder Krebse" one gets in Berlin, or the Oregon crawfish. I often wondered what became of the bodies of these *cangrejos*, but could not find anything about them in the guide-books. But everything in its place! In speaking of the salt marshes, just referred to, Ford says: "In these marshes and along the coast breed innumerable small crabs, *cangrejos*, whose fore-claws are delicious and form titbits for the Andalusian ichthyophile. These *bocas de la Isla* are torn off from the living animal, who is then turned adrift that the claws may grow again." Here is another opening for a Spanish Henry Bergh. Still, it is a nice question of casuistry whether the *cangrejos* would rather be robbed of their claws only or be killed "outright." It would doubtless be a *lingering death, involving* more suffering than the tearing out of the claws, and with this sophistry the epicure may ease his conscience.

Presently, a most unique sight meets the eye of the tourist, which makes him imagine he has suddenly arrived in Egypt. As far as the eye can reach, the landscape is picturesquely studded with small, snow-white pyramids. Around each pyramid the ground is divided into square plots, like flower-beds, but dug out and filled with salt water, which is conducted thither by numerous narrow canals. That explains the mystery. The pyramids are solid salt, and the shallow beds are the pans in which the salt water evaporates. The salt crystallizes first along the edges of the pans, and looks very pretty—like a border of fresh-fallen snow. At Cadiz I was informed that ordinarily it takes ten or twelve days for one of these pans to evaporate, but when the African wind called the levanter blows, three or four days suffice. As the dry, blustering levanter is greatly disliked in Cadiz, we have here a literal confirmation of the saying that it is an ill wind that blows no one good. The importance and extent of this salt industry may be inferred from the fact that it supports a whole town of 27,000 souls, San Fernando, ten miles from Cadiz.

And now, on approaching "fair Cadiz, rising o'er the dark blue sea," it is absolutely incumbent on the tourist to take his eye away from the window and turn it inwards—to indulge in historical reminiscences and enjoy the thrills of archaic emotion. For is he not coming to a city which was founded by Hercules himself, eleven hundred years before Christ, and which is therefore half as old as the world itself, according to the Hebrew legends?—a city which supplied the ancient Roman epicures and amusement-seekers with salt-fish and dancing-girls; to which the ancient philosophers resorted to study the curious phenomenon of the tides, and which was long considered the end of the world.

It seems strange that it never occurred to any one—so far as I know—to call Cadiz the Spanish Venice. Like Venice, it lies at sea—seven miles at sea; and had the inhabitants of Cadiz wished it, they might easily have had canals instead of streets, for most of the streets begin and end at the ocean. Coming straight from the ultra-Moorish Seville, with its narrow, winding streets, one finds it strange that the neighboring Cadiz, which also belonged to the Moors more than five hundred years, should have so much wider and straighter streets, and few or no patios or other Moorish characteristics. The explanation lies in the fact that almost the whole town was newly built and laid out after the English bombardment in 1596. Cadiz, being practically on an island, is much cooler than Seville—indeed, many Seville families come here to spend the summer—so that Moorish patios are not essential for comfort, and one might say that their places are taken by the curious *miradores*, or turrets on the tops of the houses, whence the natives can enjoy the sea-breezes and a magnificent view at the same time. The blue of the sky and the sea is no deeper at Cadiz than at Malaga or at Marseilles, and the reason, therefore, why it is always so much emphasized in descriptions of Cadiz is because it obtrudes itself so much more vividly than elsewhere, owing to the entire absence of smoke in the air, and to the glaring white of the houses, which are constantly being whitewashed. It is difficult to understand the motive of this eternal, monotonous whitewashing in Spain. Religious fanaticism probably had something to do with it—the desire to hide and destroy the Moorish ornaments on the buildings. Or else the habit originated in the mistaken notion that because black absorbs the heat of the sun, white ought to afford a grateful relief. No doubt white is cool, but in large masses it is the most dazzling and intolerable of all hues. If snow ever fell in southern Spain, the inhabitants might be able to infer from the phenomenon of snow-blindness that the glare of white houses is very injurious to the eyes; or, if they were better educated, the same conclusion would be forced on them by the remarkable frequency of weakness or diseases of the eye. Foreigners, too, at Cadiz, are very apt to suffer from headache, which can be readily traced to the nerves of the eye. Why not "paint the town"—if not "red," at any rate a sombre blue or green? One never hears of such a thing as "grass-blindness." But perhaps yellow, the complementary color of the circumambient blue, would be the most poetic tint for Cadiz.

It is the custom of tourists to hurry through Cadiz, making it a mere station on their way to Gibraltar or Tangier. From the mere sight-seer's point of view this may be justifiable, for the cathedral is not a remarkable specimen of architecture, and of works of art there is only one that engages the attention of tourists—the last Murillo, in the former convent of San Francisco, in painting which the artist fell from the scaffolding and sustained fatal injuries. It must also be admitted that Cadiz is one of the noisiest cities in Spain at all hours of the day and night except between one and five A. M., the street-criers atoning by their abundance and loudness for the absence of the *sereno's* song, which has been suppressed, notwithstanding the opposition of the lower classes, who have no clocks to tell them the hour of the night. But, aside from these drawbacks, Cadiz is one of the pleasantest places in Spain to spend a week in. It is a very clean city, the beggar nuisance hardly exists, the society is the most cultivated in Spain outside of Madrid and Barcelona, the women the most graceful in Andalusia, and the Alameda, where everybody promenades in the evening, the coolest and the finest in Spain, commanding lovely views of the ocean, which is by no means always as blue as it is painted, but has its zones of dark green and purplish, according to the light. And in a walk along the sea-walls surrounding Cadiz, one meets with many unique sights, such as the large mercantile storehouses, sailors from all parts of the world, including a sprinkling of negroes and Moors, betokening the neighborhood of Africa, troops of soldiers always walking *prestissimo*, and, finally, the numerous fishermen sitting unprotected in the broiling sun, which would be insufferable were it not for the sea breeze. The fish they catch are of the most delicious flavor, especially when one gets them hot at the numerous small fish kitchens opening on the street, where they are fried in large kettles of olive oil. I tried these on the recommendation of the German Consul, who said that, however objectionable the original flavor of Spanish olive oil might be, this flavor entirely disappears after a few dozen fish have been fried in it. It then becomes as clear as water, and the fish fried in it are as crisp and as delicate in flavor as the best *chef* could make them. But that, the Consul added, was about the only thing fit to eat one could get in Cadiz, and as for himself, he chiefly lived on imported canned meats. Almost all the fresh meat is brought from Africa (Tangier), and is by no means of superior quality, while its price is so enhanced by the duty levied on all edibles at the city gates that only the wealthy can afford to eat meat—a chicken, for instance, costing 75 cents in the market.

This tax on the most necessary articles of food, which makes living so much more expensive to all classes (not only in Spain, but in some other European countries), has always seemed to me protectionism gone mad, and made me look upon smugglers as the only upholders of natural law and human rights against tyrannic and idiotic legislation. Sitting on a bench in front of the hotel one day, a man accosted me in a mysterious manner, and offered me a splendid lot of fine cigars at a ridiculous price. Of course he was a smuggler, and I was almost sorry that I don't smoke. The worst of these imposts is that neither the city nor the state derives any considerable benefit from them. Most of the money goes into the private pockets of the officials. Southern Spain is overrun with smugglers, whose trade is the safest one in the world, for they simply share their-

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plunder with the officials and go scot-free wherever they please. An incident illustrating their methods was told me on good authority. There is an old law according to which a foreign vessel that enters the harbor of Cadiz without having undergone certain formalities of registering at a certain place, can be seized and fined to the amount of ten times the duty that would be levied on the goods. One day a German vessel entered the harbor without having complied with these regulations, through no fault of the captain's, but because the official could not be found. Although the vessel was not bound for Cadiz, but simply stopped there to wait for telegraphic orders before proceeding on its course, it was seized, and the captain was informed that he would have to pay a fine running into the hundred thousand. He appealed to the consul, who immediately went to Madrid, where he found that the officials, from lowest to highest, had already figured out what would be their share of the plunder; and if he had not been backed up by the embassy of his country, and assumed a threatening attitude, his mission would have been a failure.

From time immemorial it has been the custom in Spain for every one, beginning with kings and ecclesiastics, to plunder and cheat subordinates, who in turn could hardly avoid following their example; and thus the thing has gone on from one end of the chain to the other. My own experiences having been entirely of an unofficial nature, my impressions of the Spaniards are almost all of a favorable nature, except in the matter of bull-fights and occasional instances of stupendous ignorance—which the present methods of education are hardly likely to modify; for I am told that even in Cadiz, cultivated by constant contact with foreigners, boys of six and of sixteen years are put into the same classes, studying the same lessons. Yet the kernel of the Spanish people is sound and sweet. I have travelled a good deal, but nowhere have I found well-dressed people so willing to go several blocks out of their way to direct you to a certain street. They constantly do it, however much you may protest. At the popular festivals, again, the most perfect order prevails, and one never sees so much as an angry look. The peasants are extremely polite and good-natured. When I left Seville, a score of peasants waited until a dozen foreigners had bought their tickets, although they were at the window first. I do not think such a thing would happen anywhere else, nor do I believe that, in the same class, one could witness in any other country a little idyllic scene such as I saw one day in Seville. I was sitting in the Alameda, and on the opposite side of the bench sat a nurse with a lovely black-eyed boy of seven years. Presently three ragged boys, a year or two older, came along, one of whom held a rose in his hand. Seeing the boy in the nurse's lap, he approached him, put the rose in his hand, and rejoined his companions, smiling, before the nurse had time to say, "Gracias." Such abundant instances of amiability and innate love of beauty could not be found in a nation which is corrupted in its core.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL COURAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An editorial in *Puck* (a journal which has done the cause of reform yeoman service) justifying, while regretting, the President's civil-service reform course, seems to me to mark a departure from the Independent standpoint too decided to remain unnoticed. That the President's course in this matter has been unfortunate, if we entirely ignore his relations to his party, and look only to his full patriotic duty—and to this alone he should have looked—I presume that every Independent would admit; but, placing the matter upon the far lower ground of party expediency, it seems to me equally unfortunate and indefensible. I hold that the history of Mr. Cleveland's Presidency demonstrates beyond question that political courage is not only good statesmanship, but good "politics," in the vulgar sense of that word; and it is so proved, no less by his unequivocal record on the silver, tariff, and pension questions than by his doubtful record on the question of civil-service reform.

(1.) Very shortly after his election, and, I think, before his inauguration, the country was surprised, the Democratic party was dumbfounded, by a letter on the silver question advocating fearlessly views opposed to those held by the large majority of the party leaders. If my memory serves me, Mr. Henry Watterson, in a double-leaded editorial, characterized the step as a dangerous and reckless proceeding, and as calculated to disrupt the party. What has been the outcome? The silver question is fast taking its place with the Southern question and the Greenback question as a dead issue; it has given in the Senate but one spasmodic kick since, and the Great West, the home of the silver "idea," joined clamorously in the cry for the President's renomination.

(2.) A little later, the President is confronted by a pension bill, reported by a Democratic Committee and passed by a large majority in a Democratic House. Without a thought of political expediency, with a certainty of running counter to a large organized body of those directly interested, he vetoed the bill. Then followed the same kind of outcry he had heard before: he had imperilled his chances for renomination; he had imperilled his chances for reëlection. Undaunted, he applied the same unsparing veto to numerous bills for public buildings, etc., every one of which angered some community where votes will be needed in November. What has been the outcome of this? After a few months, his party has caught up with him, and, in National Convention assembled, sustains his action unanimously.

(3.) A third time he had and seized the opportunity to demonstrate a leader's powers. I dare say that, had he submitted his memorable tariff message to a party caucus, and asked an opinion as to the advisability of sending it, a decided majority would have requested him to retain it—at least until after the election. Upon several occasions the Speaker of the House had lost the golden opportunity of proving his statesmanship by rising to the same great occasion. Not so the President. The message was sent; Democratic protectionists and Democratic reformers with a decided predilection for party success alike deplored his rashness; it was the old story—party disruption, a sure election needlessly endangered, a tyro's bravado. And now, finally, what has been the outcome of this? With a bare working majority—a majority far less than that held in either of the two preceding Congresses in which even all consideration of a tariff bill had been defeated—a tariff bill more pronounced in its nature than any yet offered, though still a moderate measure, passes with ease and certainty.

The explanation for this is to be found in the fact that a great unorganized mass will quickly assume definite shape when once it becomes conscious of a purpose. Within large limits, it was the President's privilege and opportunity to develop his party's policy, and, except in one case, he has done his duty manfully. The great mass of his party, originally indifferent, have quickly recognized his leadership, and the so-called party leaders have had to follow. I firmly believe that the President's career shows conclusively that he has frittered away the opportunity to range his party at his back on the question of civil-service reform, as he has ranged it on other questions. I realize the difficulty of procuring competent and honest assistants; I realize that he has done the cause, as it is, substantial service; but I still believe that had his own practice been as emphatic and unmistakable as his utterance, had the early lapses been met with his native vigor, the reform sentiment would have spread with a rapidity exceeding all expectation.

When I say that his fragmentary reform is not only bad statesmanship, but bad "politics," I have in mind especially Indiana. I am told that the State is considered very doubtful. It is a serious thing, if true; and if true, it is due to two causes: first, the alienation of the Independent vote; second, dissatisfaction over the distribution of offices. In the very State where the most astute means were taken to make the result a foregone conclusion, the inevitable weakness of "politics" has been most thoroughly exposed.

Nevertheless, on a review of the entire field, with a full admission of the President's shortcomings and errors—and he has made other errors to which I have not alluded—I still cannot see how any Independent can hesitate as to his duty. The President's personality has been the most healthful influence our public life has felt for years. He has done a service which may be justly compared to that of the Supreme Bench in bringing back our minds to the fundamental principles of the Constitution. In homely rhetoric, but with irresistible clearness and force, he has opened to us paths that have long since been blocked and forgotten. The political atmosphere has been purified in a way that will make Blaine, paternal government, limitless extravagance, bloody shirt, absurd four years hence—if, indeed, the sudden change of base in the Senate on the tariff does not make them partly so already. And, whether the President be reëlected or not, the long run will conclusively prove that, throughout his career, political expediency has uniformly coincided with the highest demands of public duty, and that his strength is due as fully to his fearless attitude on the tariff, the silver, and the pension questions, as his weakness is due to his vacillation on the question of civil-service reform.

F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14, 1888.

A MORAL CONTEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the course of time political questions are decided by their moral weight. The foundation of national life is morality, and its vitality depends upon the strength of this foundation. Free institutions are of a higher value only for the reason that they allow a freer scope of development to all the nobler moral qualities of man. The greatest danger threatening such institutions springs from sins against the moral law. There is no amount of wealth in this world, there is no protection afforded by political powers, that could guard against ruin a nation whose life-blood was poisoned by corruption. The economic questions that at present

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agitate our social and political life are not merely questions of dollars and cents. There is a moral side in them that makes them all-powerful enemies of existing wrongs; it is their moral weight that warrants victory to them and causes waste of life to those who venture futile struggles against them. It is through their moral side that they are intimately linked with the happiness of each individual, with everything that is most dear to us, with the welfare of this nation and all the grand possibilities of its future.

Expressions such as "A reduction of the tariff will ruin the people," really mean nothing. They are convenient bridges for those who cannot swim in the sea of argument. They are used by people who do not think, or else they would not dare to utter such a despicable opinion of the vitality of this nation. They are the greatest *testimonium paupertatis* for those who have the courage to utter them; they are an insult to the pride of the nation. A nation like the United States never will be ruined by the loss of a few dollars. The real issue of the present campaign is not a tariff reduction of either 4½ per cent. or 2 per cent., but it is the same issue to-day that it was yesterday and four years ago: it is the fight for or against corruption. Everything that relates to protection means corruption. The history of the tariff is a history of corruption; the system of taxation on which it is based is a system of corruption, beyond the control of the Government and the people; its result—the surplus—is a continual source of corruption; and its most conspicuous advocate is the very prototype of corruption. No industry, nay, no species of life whatever, can thrive under a protection that is a synonym of corruption.

The present campaign is not merely a contest for less taxation, it is a contest for the purity, the glory, and the liberties of the nation that shall not be thrown as a carrion to a few crows; it is a fight of law and justice against the anarchy of dishonesty; it is the fight of the patriot who would sacrifice everything, his life and his property, to the welfare of this country, against the friend of prostitution, who would sell for money the most precious possessions of humanity.

Who will be the victor? LOUIS KA.

BALTIMORE, August 13, 1888.

PARTY NAMES AND PARTY AIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of the 9th inst. contained two articles of special interest, which made me wish they could be read and laid to heart by every man who has brains enough to do his own thinking, or who dares to say his soul is his own. I allude to those entitled "Laodicean Politics" and "Campaign Lying."

Every man who has any just conception of his duties and responsibilities as a citizen must be often tempted to lift up his voice against the endless devices of demagogues for influencing the popular vote. But while his indignation is excited by the thought that great masses of people can be swayed by the mere utterance of plausible lies, which would be transparent if men would but take the trouble to think for themselves, yet the obvious fact that they will not do so, but will greedily swallow any garbage their party leaders deal out to them, but refuse to taste of the most wholesome food without their sanction, makes him despair of effecting any good result by addressing them as reasonable beings. He feels, too, that any attempt he may make to set them right by a simple statement of obvious truths, will be attributed to precisely the same spirit of one-sided partisanship which he condemns in others, and he shrinks from the thought of thus demeaning himself.

The blind attachment to a mere party name, without investigation of the objects of its leaders, is productive of more real injury to the cause of just and wise government than any other source of evil. As long as a mere party name has weight in the popular mind, it will be made use of by knaves as a motive power for the accomplishment of their ends. A moment's thought should suffice to convince any one of the truth so ably set forth in the articles alluded to, that a "party" is only to be judged by its avowed policy. If its objects are changed, it is worse than folly to cling to the vehicle which new leaders are dragging to destruction, after working their way into the harness, like Munchausen's wolf, by devouring the horse. And yet there are tens of thousands of men clamoring to-day for measures which the original Republican leaders would abjure, but which those who have assumed their places are hoping to carry through by putting them forward as the policy of the Republican party.

A party is like a wave of the sea. Its power is as irresistible for evil as for good, but every individual drop of the human wave bears a weight of responsibility, born of the God-given power of judgment, which he is bound to exercise, instead of suffering himself to be blindly driven by the tempest of party spirit.

C.

MINNEAPOLIS, August 13, 1888.

MR. BLAINE "COACHING" THE VOTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Surely no more friendly wish was ever uttered in behalf of the workingmen of the United States than that of Mr. Blaine at the ovation given him in New York upon his return from England. "The campaign on which you are about to enter should be prefaced, if that were possible, by every voter in the United States seeing what I have seen," etc. Mr. Blaine saw one of the most beautiful of countries in the pleasantest of manners. What voter but could wish to pass by easy stages through the green lanes of England to the hills and lakes of Scotland? Then how merrily must the horn of the coachman have sounded as Mr. Blaine and his party wended their way through the Trosachs. The trip down the Caledonian canal, the Trosachs, and the Scottish lakes is, perhaps, the finest of its kind in the world. I would recommend it to the voter as being far finer than the trip up the Rhine. But it is probable that Mr. Blaine had in mind something else than the scenery of the country through which he lately coached with Mr. Carnegie, and that he referred to the industrial conditions of England. Mr. Blaine did not satisfy the curiosity of his hearers in this matter of what he saw, and so I beg leave to supply the want in the language of Thomas Erskine May:

"The fruits of free trade are to be seen in the marvellous development of British industry. England will ever hold in grateful remembrance the names of the foremost promoters of this new policy—of Huskisson, Poulett, Thomson, Hume, Villiers, and Labouchere—of Cobden and Bright—of Peel and Gladstone; but let her not forget that their fruitful statesmanship was quickened by the life of freedom."

That is what Mr. Blaine saw as the result of free trade. Had Mr. Blaine seen England before the advent of the policy of free trade, and while she was still shielded by walls of protection, this (I again prefer Sir Erskine's language) is the scene he would have pictured to his hearers:

"Our former commercial policy was founded on monopolies and artificial protections and encouragements—maintained for the benefit of the few, at the expense of the many. . . . Every produce and manufacture of England was protected, by high duties or prohibitions, against the competition of imported commodities of the like nature. Many exports were encouraged by bounties and drawbacks. Every one sought protection or encouragement for himself—utterly regardless of the welfare of others. The protected interests were favored by the State, while the whole community suffered from prices artificially raised and industry unnaturally disturbed. This selfish and illiberal policy found support in erroneous doctrines of political economy; but its foundation was narrow self-interest."

The policy here described is the one that Mr. Blaine is so anxious to champion. Certainly he is the best-fitted man in the country to set forth the merits of this defunct British policy. Is it a compliment to American workingmen to tell them that the one thing to save them from pauperism is to adopt the very policy that did make of English workingmen paupers? Even a sea voyage is not sufficient to make this policy healthy in America.

Mr. Blaine also said that the wages of the American workingman could not be reduced without his consent. And, pray, why not? If they cannot be reduced without his consent, how is it that the wages of American iron-workers are only about one-half as much in and around Pittsburgh as they are at Chicago? One of two things must follow from such a condition of things. Either the iron-workers of Pittsburgh are paupers or those of Chicago are aristocrats. A student of political economy would explain the difference of wages in Pittsburgh and Chicago by the natural law of supply and demand, but such a student would be reminded that the laws of nature find no place under a protective policy. There is something rotten in Denmark when such conditions arise under a protective tariff of 47 per cent. ad valorem.

Mr. Blaine reminded his hearers not to forget the true issue of this campaign. This is what he said, but in saying it he sought to raise a cry and not to meet an issue. Mr. Cleveland has done the country one of his greatest political services by making a true, live issue for both parties, and Mr. Blaine will also render the country a service if, in his campaigning, he will meet that issue fairly and squarely.

In conclusion I will say that if every voter, even after the campaign is over, can go and see what Mr. Blaine saw before it, he will find it most refreshing and pleasing, and perhaps learn that a protective tariff is not a cure-all.

Y.

CHEAP CLOTHING AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Gen. Harrison's objection to cheap clothing (that it would reduce wages) seems to you hard of comprehension for the reason which you state in the *Nation* of August 9, in an editorial entitled "The New View of Cheapness." This reason, as I understand you, is that clothing has been very much reduced in price during the last twenty-five years and wages not reduced in the same time. But certainly Gen. Harrison would not object to such a reduction of price, for it is due to improved methods of transacting business and to the invention of labor-saving machinery, and does not involve a cheaper man or woman under the clothing.

But the reduction of price which you desire to procure by a reduction of the tariff, and to which Gen. Harrison objects, must be obtained, it seems to me, either by going to a foreign country for clothing, in which case some one

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here is thrown out of employment, or by paying a less price here, which means that some one here receives less. In the latter case I should like to ask you who is to receive less if not the laborer? Do not all advocates of free trade for this country desire to purchase various articles (except sugar) for less than they can be produced by American labor as at present rewarded, and therefore do they not wish to either reduce wages or expel industries?

A. H.

Boston, August 11, 1888.

[No, kind friend to American industry. It does not follow at all that we should go to foreign countries for clothing, or even for cloth. In order to get cheaper clothing, it is only necessary to get cheaper wool. In point of fact, we import the cloth pretty liberally now. We imported of woollen goods last year (exclusive of carpets) $43,500,000 worth. We should like to see a larger proportion of these goods made at home, as manifestly they might be if the American manufacturer were not handicapped by duties averaging 36.08 per cent. on his raw material.—Ed. Nation.]

WHO PAYS THE DUTIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call your attention to a paragraph on page 270 of Taswell-Langmead's 'English Constitutional History' (2d ed.), which may be recommended to those interested in the Mills bill. The passage is as follows:

"Four years later, in 1343 (17 Edward III.), the King, being much pressed for money, assembled, with the concurrence of the Lords, a council of merchants, and procured from them, without the assent of the Commons, a grant of forty shillings on every sack of wool that should be exported. It seems to have been contended that this duty did not fall upon the people, but upon the foreign purchaser; but the Commons, in their remonstrance, showed that they possessed some rudimentary knowledge of the principles of political economy, alleging that the tax actually fell on the seller, the foreign merchants refusing to give the accustomed price on account of the additional duty. . . . In 1363, however, upon the petition of the Commons, all grants of subsidies upon wool made by merchants without the consent of Parliament were declared void by statute."

Though this is about an export duty, it shows how many centuries ago it is that the refutation, in the minds of practical men, was made clear of that false argument that foreign merchants pay the taxes we may levy on foreign commerce. But in spite of this lesson to be learned from the Commoners of England in their fight against the unconstitutional action of their King, the same old fallacy is even now at times advanced in favor of those who wish to extend monopolies at the expense of our public.

Very respectfully,

Osgood Smith.

August 15, 1888.

H. H. RICHARDSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your article on the late H. H. Richardson with much pleasure, and can, perhaps, add a little to it. In regard to the rebellion which was raised in the École des Beaux-Arts on the appointment of Viollet-le-Duc as lecturer, Mr. Richardson has often told me the circumstance which you mention, that the protest of the students was written in his room; with the additional one, that, although he took no part in the composition of the protest, he went with the other students who carried it to the Tuileries to lay it before the Emperor; and, while looking on at the demonstration, was arrested, with others, and taken to the police-station, where he remained till late at night, when Count Nieuwerkerke, then Minister of Fine Arts, made his appearance and ordered the release of the captives. Although he was for some time the only American in the School of Fine Arts, at least in the section of architecture, and was so completely a Frenchman in all his professional relations that, on leaving the School, he was offered a "marrying position" as one of the most promising of the young French architects, he never forgot his own country, and, during his seven years of student life, always declined to enter the *concours* for the medals and prizes which were open to him, preferring, as he said, to get as great a variety of work in design as possible, as a preparation for American practice, rather than spend six months on a single problem as a competitor for a prize.

As to his work in the School, it seems to be taken for granted by every one who has written about him that, after the first year or two in this country, he abandoned entirely what he had been taught, except, of course, the mental discipline that he had gained, and turned to a new style of design, which he had to evolve mainly out of his inner consciousness. There is a good deal of truth in this view, but it appears to me to be not entirely correct, and to do injustice to the influence of his patron, André, whose peculiarities of style, and even certain pet *motifs*, are frequently suggested in Richardson's work of all periods, although the rendering is very different from that which André would have employed, and the part which his old master had in his inspiration was probably unsuspected by Richardson himself. In fact, André's ideas were so congenial to Richardson's tastes that hardly any one else in Paris could have done so much to favor him. If there was any other man suited to be his teacher, it would have been Henri Labrouste, whose simplicity and originality were as dear to Richardson as the "bigness," the "stuff," the broad contrasts of light and shadow, and the largeness of detail which André impresses on all his best pupils. The cavernous triple portals, the all-embracing arches, the deep and richly decorated voussoirs, in everything, except the details, are André's as well as Richardson's, and belonged to certain Romanesque architects six or seven hundred years before their two modern disciples took pleasure in them.

It is, by the way, a little curious to recall the steps by which Richardson was attracted to the adoption of the Romanesque as a complete style. His first work in this country was classic, the Boston and Albany Railroad office at Springfield being as purely Italian Renaissance as possible. A little later came his commissions for the Medford church, and the two churches at Springfield, which were almost necessarily Gothic. About the same time he had some secular buildings to do, among them a market-house in New York. For this he made a design composed of huge round arches, which might have come direct from André, and the same fondness for the sweep and simplicity of the semicircular arch showed itself wherever he thought it admissible, even as a relieving arch. One day he said to me that he never could quite like pointed arches, even in a church. "They always had a pinched look," he thought, and his Brattle Square Church in Boston, for which he at first sometimes felt himself called upon to apologize, showed the sincerity of his aversion to them, which ripened into a profound and loving study of the Romanesque, and the adoption of it, not only for churches, but secular buildings. The delicacy of his feeling for breadth and silhouette, as well as proportion and color, was surprising in a man so impetuous and enthusiastic. "Don't stick shelves around it," was the common observation by which he quelled our inclination to exuberance in string-courses, and a "tormented" look was that which he disliked most about a building.

I have heard it said that he was very catholic in his tastes, and interested himself in a great variety of subjects. If so, it must have been in his later years. When I knew him, he thought and talked and dreamed nothing but architecture—and his family. Nearly everything was converted in his mind into a possible architectural suggestion. He was once asked to make a design for the organ-case for the Brattle Square Church, and deputed me to study the construction of organs as a source of ideas. The most conspicuous peculiarity about the instrument appeared to me to be the swell-box, which I duly described to Mr. Richardson. "Something that opens and shuts to vary the quantity of sound," he mused. "Why would it not be a good idea," he continued, "to put a gigantic head on the front of the organ-case, with its mouth to open and shut to form the swell?" He was more than half in earnest, and I think was only dissuaded from incorporating some such idea with his design by the consideration of the effect it would produce upon the children in the congregation.

T. M. Clark.

178 Devonshire Street, Boston, August 18.

"*SUPPOSITIOUS.*"

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Old as is this word, and often as it has been used, it has not yet, I believe, found a place in any dictionary. Some notion of the frequency with which it occurs in literature may be formed from the ensuing quotations:

"The testimony produced is none of his: It is *suppositious* and a counterfeit." Bp. Richard Mountagu, *Invocation of Saints* (1624), p. 212.

"A *suppositious* fragment, taken out of the Constitutions of Clemens." Abp. John Williams (1636), *Holy Table* (1637), p. 168.

"Dionysius Areopagita, an Author, however, said to be *suppositious*," etc. William Sclater (1652), *Civil Magistracy by Divine Authority* (1653), p. 10.

"Their uselesse, *suppositious*, loose, and illegitimate Directory." Bp. John Gauden, *Considerations*, etc. (1661), p. 6.

"There is no great difficulty in discovering that these Letters were *suppositious*, and not written by Ung-can." Dr. Johnson, *Lobo's Voyage to Abyssinia*, etc. (1735), p. 243.

"If he had intention of adopting a *suppositious* child, he would have fixed upon a boy, rather than a girl." Goldsmith (1769), *History of Rome* (1786), Vol. I., p. 148.

"The vanity of the ancients . . . first led them to the invention of *suppositious* cases." John Lawrence (1797), in the *Monthly Magazine*, Vol. XLVI., p. 112 (1818).

"To come, however, to these *suppositious* epistles (which remind us of 'the genuine correspondence of the celebrated Dr. Solomon')," etc. *Quarterly Review*, Vol. XII., p. 74 (1818).

"A *suppositious* dialogue;" "*suppositious* proofs." Professor H. H. Wilson, *Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindus*, Vol. I., pp. 14, 65 (1827).

"They . . . almost always added to their improved editions some *suppositious* pieces which claimed to be written by the original author." "This *suppositious* chronicle forms a kind of philosophy of history," etc. William Taylor, of Norwich, *Historic Survey of German Poetry* (1830), Vol. II., pp. 119, 295. At p. 314 of the same volume, Taylor has *supposititious*.

The word in question is often also found in

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the pages of less known authors whom it seems unnecessary to mention.

Supposititicus we took from the Latin *suppositicius* or *suppositicius*, comparable with which are *adscripticius*, *adventicius*, *collaticius*, *collecticius*, *commenticius*, *conducticius*, etc., etc. Such an adjective is based on a supine; and its termination expresses manner of origin. It is singular, therefore, that scholars like Bp. Mountagu and Abp. Williams, for instance, should have elected, instead of *suppositicius*, *suppositious*, which, answering to the factitious *suppositiosus*, from the stem *suppositio[n]-+-osus*, should denote fulness or abundance of what is signified by *suppositio*. Actual adjectives similar to *suppositiosus* are seen in *ambitiosus*, *contentiosus*, *seditiosus*, and *superstitiosus*. This pedagoguery must be pardoned. It is risked in preference to possible obscurity.

Except to import "fraudulently substituted," as, for example, when qualifying *child*, *suppositicius* is hardly authorized by good usage. Mr. Dickens, in his 'Little Dorrit,' 'Great Expectations,' 'Our Mutual Friend,' and elsewhere, makes it equivalent to "supposed," but with dubious warrant, old or recent.

What may be called, for distinction, the Latinistic *to suppose*, akin, in sense, to *suppositicius* and the ineligible *suppositious*, is defined by Dr. Johnson, "to put one thing, by fraud, in the place of another," but is left unexemplified; and his editors, Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham, go no further. It is not very unusual, however; nor are the related *supposite* and *supposition* unknown. Proofs here follow:

"Finding his wife Hyperia, that, in like manner, was delivered, but of a dead child, he *supposed* this in the stead." "Your nephew dyed at Sea, and . . . I *supposed* my sonne in his place, who was receiv'd for him; and ever since he has beene bred as if he had beene the true Tygranes." Anon., *Ariana* (1636), pp. 77, 203.

"No *supposed*, false, subintroduced God or Gods." Bp. Richard Mountagu (died 1641), *Acts and Monuments*, etc. (1642), p. 11.

"The Philistines would not suffer the feet of men to tread upon that threshold upon which their but fictitious and *supposed* Deitie had fallen." Rev. William Jenkyn, *The Stil-Destroyer* (1645), p. 23.

"He was then in a place where they understood nothing better than *supposing* of false titles, and never remember any reasons but such as they know will please their Clients." Anon., *The Comical History of Francion* (1655), Books I.-III., p. 62.

"What he brings of the *supposite* and imaginary causes of Paul, Barnabas, and Peter, proves," etc. Rev. Dr. Robert Baillie (1653), *The Disswasive . . . vindicated* (1655), p. 21.

"I beleeve I am not blameable for making this *supposition*" (of my sonne). Anon., *Ariana* (1636), p. 203. See the second quotation from this work, *supra*.

Quotations are added for several more words, equally new to lexicography, derived from *supponere*:

"Hence there can be no difficulty in the meaning of the word *Suppositality*, which is the Abstract of the *Suppositum*." Rev. John Serjeant, *Solid Philosophy* (1697), p. 99. Dr. South, too, has *suppositality*. *Supposital*, which it presumes, I have not met with.

"Whether (in any art or science whatsoever) a bare Hypothesis, or sole *suppositary* argument, may not be gratis, and, with the same facility and authority, be denyed, as it is affirmed." Rev. John Gaule, *The Mag-astro-mancer, or the Magical Astrological Diviner posed and puzzled* (1652), p. 107.

"Witnesse, for instance sake, those queries, whither God be materia prima, and whither Christs divinitie might not *suppositate* a fly." Rev. John Doughty (1627), *A Discourse*, etc. (1628), p. 12.

"Passions, as Actions, are of Persons or *Suppositi*." Dr. Richard Burthogge (1674), *Causa Dei* (1675), p. 55.

Copious beyond the conception of all but very diligent readers was the experimental vocabulary of bygone times. Superficial observers are wont to credit our own age with extraordinary addiction to the misusage of new terms. Yet, as can have escaped no one accustomed to incursions into the dark corners of old libraries, scientific technicalities apart, the seventeenth century was no whit behind the nineteenth in opulence of verbal innovation.—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 28, 1888.

Notes.

A NEW edition, the fourth, of that excellent English handbook, 'Descriptive Astronomy,' will be published next year; and its author, Mr. George F. Chambers of Eastbourne, Sussex, recognizing that a book of such character must necessarily have many general defects, as well as contain a certain number of errors, notifies the astronomical world that he is prepared to welcome suggestions and corrigenda from any and every quarter.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately the President's Message in large type, small quarto, with sixteen full-page moral and graphic illustrations from original designs by Thomas Nast. The "Questions of the Day" edition of the President's Message, with annotations by R. R. Bowker, which has been delayed for some important additional material, will be ready about the same time.

G. S. Fellows & Co., New York, announce 'Protection Echoes from the Capitol,' "containing 1,200 aphorisms and leading principles of the protective policy," by Thos. H. McKee; and 'Memory Systems, New and Old,' by A. E. Middleton.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy,' by Prof. Joseph Leidy; 'Inebriety: its Causes, its Results, its Remedy,' by Franklin D. Clum, M.D.; 'Tenure and Toil; or, Rights and Wrongs of Property and Labor,' by John Gibbons; 'Embroidery and Lace,' from the French of Ernest Lefebvre; 'Jesus in Modern Life,' by Algernon S. Logan; 'The Writer's Handbook'; 'A Marriage of Shadows, and Other Poems,' by Margaret Veley; 'Sinfire and Douglas Duane,' by Julian Hawthorne; 'The Owl's Nest,' from the German of E. Marlitt; 'Memoirs of a Royalist,' by M. de Falloux; 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by the Rev. H. W. Little; and 'With the Camel Corps up the Nile,' by Count Gleichen.

'The Pillars of Society, and Other Plays,' by Henrik Ibsen, edited by Havelock Ellis, will be the September volume in the "Camelot Series"; 'Poems by Southey,' edited by Sidney R. Thompson, in the "Canterbury Poets"; a 'Life of Bunyan,' by Canon Venables, in the "Great Writers." Thomas Whittaker is the American publisher of these series.

In the making of pretty books England has been rapidly advancing of late, without, however, in any way threatening the preëminence of France. It is as a pretty book that we are inclined to receive Mr. Alfred Pollard's new edition of Sir Philip Sidney's 'Astrophel and Stella' (London: David Stott). The type is well chosen and the page well shaped, albeit a thought too scant for the text; the paper is suitable; there is a frontispiece, and altogether the book reveals that its maker took thought and knew bookmaking to be an art. It is well made, also, in another sense, for the editor has done his work in scholarly fashion, supplying an adequate introduction, many various readings, and ample notes.

Quite in place in the Messrs. Putnam's "Nugget Series" is La Motte Fouqué's 'Undine,' with 'Sintram' contained between the same covers—the first prettily illustrated. The little volume is convenient for the pocket, yet ornamental for the library shelf or table.

The end of Pepys's Diary; Essays and Tales by Addison; Johnson's Lives of Addison, Savage, and Swift; and Plutarch's Lives of Pyrrhus, Camillus, etc., form the most recent additions to "Cassell's National Library."

Several years ago we reviewed Myers's 'Outlines of Ancient History,' commending the author especially for his success in making a readable book by "willingness to omit names and dates which are not essential." He has since published a 'Mediæval and Modern History' marked by the same qualities; and the earlier work is now transferred to the publishers of the later (Boston: Ginn & Co.), and republished in a revised form. In this revision President Myers has associated himself with Prof. W. F. Allen of the University of Wisconsin, who has undertaken the Roman portion, to be issued next year. In the present edition, therefore, the history of Rome appears in its original shape, as a temporary arrangement; this portion being without the maps and illustrations, which are abundantly provided for the revised work. As compared with the original, this revised edition of the Oriental and Greek histories is somewhat enlarged, and, on the whole, improved. The maps, as in the modern history, are mostly taken (by permission) from Freeman's Atlas. The illustrations are well selected, and are genuinely illustrative—a rare thing in American school histories. On the whole, we know no brief account of ancient history so well suited as this to be read by intelligent persons (not young children) who wish to acquire an accurate outline of events and to seize the spirit of the past.

Mr. John S. White's 'Recent Examination Papers for Admission to Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Sheffield Scientific School,' etc. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), speaks for itself as a work of practical utility for teachers of preparatory schools. It ought, however, either to be provided with a table of contents, or to have the several institutions designated by the headlines of the pages.

Prof. D'Ooge's 'Colloquia Latina' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is the result of his own experience in stimulating the interest of beginners in Latin by oral dialogue. The dialogues here devised (or partly borrowed from classic authors) have attractive subjects and a considerable variety, and are capable of being much extended by a skilful teacher. They are quite above the ordinary attempts in this direction, which are apt to be dreary enough.

Mr. W. J. Rolfe and his son, Mr. J. C. Rolfe, have edited with notes Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' for parallel reading during the study of Latin (Harpers). A portrait of Macaulay is prefixed, and there are other illustrations, some of which, we venture to think, ought to be retired from general circulation in favor of more recent and authentic representations. The editors dispute Matthew Arnold's judgment of the Lays as poetry, and fortify themselves by reproducing two English and one American counter-judgments. However this may be decided, there can be no doubt that the Lays are good enough poetry for youth, and are capable of being made into an acceptable text-book. Their declamatory quality and easy memorizing insure them a long vogue among schoolboys.

The 'Lessons in English, adapted to the study

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of American Classics,' by Sarah E. Husted Lockwood (Boston: Ginn & Co.), we commend to the attention of teachers of high schools and academies, without feeling sure how far the use of it will approve the scheme. It is at least not a dull or forbidding text-book.

We cannot praise highly Mr. William Williams's 'Composition and Rhetoric, by Practice' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). Although a teacher might find handy the examples here amassed, the execution as a whole falls far short of being masterly.

Whitney's 'Compendious German Grammar' (Henry Holt & Co.) celebrates its twentieth year by appearing in a sixth edition. The typography is wholly new and greatly improved; and besides the general revision (which, by the way, has not disturbed the order of paragraphs and sections), a fresh set of exercises has been added of a very practical sort. While the new orthography has not been adopted, it has been bracketed throughout.

Some two or three years ago, Mr. H. S. Hall, Master of the Military and Engineering Side, Clifton College, and Mr. S. R. Knight, late Assistant Master at Marlborough College, England, published an 'Elementary Algebra for Schools.' It met with unusual success, a second edition having since appeared. They have now given us a 'Higher Algebra, a Sequel to Elementary Algebra' (Macmillan), which is worthy of a more extended notice than we have room for. It is an octavo of over 500 pages, embracing an unusual variety of topics, the table of contents alone covering nearly 14 pages. De Morgan used to say that some men were born algebraists, some geometricians; but great talents, even in one department, by no means necessarily implied equal gifts in the other. Messrs. Hall and Knight seem to be "born algebraists." It is true they give us no new discoveries of great importance—a book intended for practical use in the higher class of schools is, perhaps, not the place for the communication of new discoveries—but they certainly thresh the old straw with new and smoothly working flails. One of the most striking and even surprising things about the book is the collection of examples by which the abstract principles are illustrated. They are distributed through the work under the proper heads, and the answers to all of them are given at the end of the volume. Chapter 33 is intended to be an exposition of the elementary principles of determinants, and to serve as an introduction to larger treatises. It is by far the most unsatisfactory in the book.

Those who wish a short, neat, and clear exposition of the elements of determinants will find it in a recently published work of Prof. W. G. Peck, formerly Professor of Mathematics at West Point, and for many years and now occupying the same position in Columbia College (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.). It covers only 47 pages, but Prof. Peck is extraordinarily felicitous in the composition of "small books on great subjects." The chapter of Messrs. Hall and Knight was evidently written out of other books. Prof. Peck's little work was quite as evidently written out of his own head. Not that there is anything original in it, but it is manifestly the result of reflection upon the materials furnished him by previous writers—of digestion and assimilation—and hence it has the symmetry and consistency which mark the product of a single mind.

The July number of the *English Historical Review* is unusually rich in the field of early English history. The first article, a very short one, by F. W. Maitland, "The Suitors of the County Court," undertakes to show that attendance upon the county courts was not, in the thirteenth century, the right of all freeholders, as is usually assumed, but was an obligation resting probably upon certain tenures. "The West Saxon Conquest of Surrey," by H. E. Malden, maintains that Surrey did not form integrally a part of the kingdom of Sussex, and narrates the contest for this territory of the West Saxons against Kent and Essex. Belonging to a later period is "The Early Life of Thomas Wolsey," by T. W. Cameron. "Hrotsvitha of Gandesheim," by W. H. Hudson, gives an account of the writings of the Nun of Gandesheim, holding that, while genuine, they "had very little influence upon the development of the drama in modern Europe," and James J. Breck Perkins shows that "The Great Condé" has enjoyed a higher reputation than he deserved—"as a soldier he yields to Turenne, and, except as a soldier, there was little in Condé to excite our approbation," witness "his turbulence when young," "his obsequiousness when old," and "his greediness, selfishness, and want of principle" all through life. The "Notes and Documents" are largely devoted to Cromwell, and contain two diaries of Waterloo.

The "plunder of the churches" at the establishment of the Reformation in England, is one of the most serious charges against the reformers. Cobbett's 'History of the Protestant Reformation' (§§ 207 and 208) speaks of "the value of the images, censers, and the like," as the motive of the plunderers, and says, "The robbers took away everything valuable, even down to the *vestments of the priests.*" Very likely there was such pilfering, in the confusion of the change in some places. It is interesting, however, to compare the account in contemporary documents. The *East-Anglian* (Ipswich, England) has had for two or three years a series of records, entitled "Certificates of Church Goods in Suffolk, *temp.* Edward VI." Here we have, for the several parishes of Suffolk (and some of Essex), a certified statement of the church goods sold, and the disposition of the money received. We have looked these over with some care, and have found that the money was uniformly expended in objects of genuine public interest; the things sold were of course such as could be of no service in the reformed worship, usually pixes, etc. The following (for Wrentham, Nov. 4, 1547) gives a fair idea of the character of these transactions. Sold, May 1, plate to the value of £30 (at 4s. 3d. the ounce). "Imploymets wth thusen": Allowed to the buyers for waste, 13s. 4d.; "in setlynge furthe Solders to srue the Kynge," £10; "for makynge a greate Dyke for wywnynge of a comon to the commne wealthe of the poore in thsame Towne," £12; paling for the "Gylde halle" yard, 13s. 4d.; repairs of same house, 16s.; "one Surplysse wt slevys commanded to be bought by the Kings visitors," 10s.; cloth, etc., for seven new surplices, 24s.; "for iiij^{or} chaldez of lyme to deke the churche," etc., 32s.; "And so remayneth in the Towne boxe to thuse of thsame Towne" 50s. 8d. These calculations, by the way, do not quite balance. It is to be noticed that this sale, as well as some others, was in the reign of Henry VIII. Suffolk, it is well known, was a stronghold of Protestantism and Puritanism, and Wrentham was perhaps the headquarters of Puritanism in the county, being the home of the Brewsters.

An antiquarian correspondent asks how we shall designate the relationship of a man to his widow's son by a second marriage. Diagrammatically, the situation may be represented thus:

Richard^1———Mary———Peter^2
(son) John (son) Henry

Peter is John's stepfather. Richard is Henry's "step-back father," suggests our friend.

Quite the best among the examples of photogravure which make up the portfolio of *Sun and Shade*, No. 1, are two portraits of the rival Presidential candidates. We are much mistaken if the physiognomist would not read strength and weakness in them respectively. The other plates, to the number of eleven, show the process of the Photogravure Company of this city in divers employments, now copying a canvas by Le Rolle, now a lithograph, and again scenes from the theatre and from nature. This medley is hardly adapted for binding, and, indeed, is provided with a loose cover, which is all it needs. The office of the Company is at No. 853 Broadway.

We have received the third or August number of the *Scottish Art Review*, published at Glasgow by Kerr & Richardson. It is, without giving promise of being an authoritative expounder of art, a readable magazine, of varied and orderly contents. An etching and a phototype after Corot, and Romney's Lady Derby, are the plates of the number.

On the recommendation of the Minister of Public Instruction, King Humbert has issued a decree regulating the manner in which Italy proposes to celebrate the fourth centennial of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. This will consist mainly in the publication of the collected works of the great navigator, and of all the documents and charts which will throw any light upon his life and voyages. This will be accompanied by a bibliography of the works published in Italy upon Columbus and upon the discovery of America, from the earliest time down to the present. The head of the royal commission charged with the preparation of this edition is Cesare Correnti, President of the Italian Historical Institute, and among its members are Signors Amari, Cantù, Desimoni, and the Marquis Doria. An appropriation of 12,000 lire has been made to cover the expenses of this work, which is now, if we are not mistaken, about to be undertaken for the first time. Different editors have published portions of his writings, as Navarrete the account of his voyages, and Major his letters; but no one has yet collected all his writings into a single edition, though an index to them was published in 1864.

Following the example set by the Radicals of Rome, in their efforts to erect a statue to Giordano Bruno, the Liberals of Venice have voted a monument to Fra Paolo Sarpi, to be placed in the little square of Sta. Fosca, not far from the spot where he was stabbed in 1607. Opinions may differ as to the permanent political value of the services which Sarpi tried to render to Venice, but unquestionably he deserves some greater memorial than the tombstone at San Michele. Unfortunately, at the present time this monument not only is construed, but is intended, to be a demonstration against the Church. Designs for it are to be sent in for public competition to be opened in October and continued during November.

—In the August *Macmillan's*, Mr. Sidney Colvin gives a foretaste of the new material in his forthcoming edition of the letters of Keats to his family and friends. It has been previously known that Mr. Jeffrey of Louisville, who originally furnished the bulk of the most interesting letters for Lord Houghton's use in his life of the poet, tampered with the text, and the true readings and cancelled passages of a portion of the correspondence were restored in Speed's American edition a few years ago. Mr. Colvin has had the use of others of the original letters, and has found in them similar omitted parts

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which he will publish, so that we are likely to have at last a final edition. There is apparently nothing of serious importance in the changes, but the originals afford a fuller and in some parts a more natural expression of Keats's mind. Among the items of interest is the mention of his friend Reynolds as the author of the satire on "Peter Bell," which appeared before the poem itself came out and gave offence to Lamb, who wished the author "whipt at the cart's tail" for it; and, following on this, inserted in the journal-letter, is a review of the skit by Keats which was afterwards printed in the *Examiner*. This piece of prose was hitherto unknown, but, trivial as it is, has some interest. The new passages are liberally quoted from in this article, and cover many subjects, as was the habit of Keats's pen. The best one is his description of meeting Coleridge, of which we already have Coleridge's own account. It is too long to be reproduced here, but it gives the list of topics spoken of by Coleridge in the two-miles walk "at his alderman-like after-dinner pace"—an endless list—and winds up with this brief but effective stroke of description: "I heard his voice as he came towards me—I heard it as he moved away—I had heard it all the interval—if it may be called so." This was the time that Coleridge felt "death in that hand," as Keats took leave of him. The first draft of "La Belle Dame sans Merci" is given, with some light jesting remarks upon its technique by the poet, and it appears from the paper that its date was April-May, 1819, the blossoming time of Keats's genius. It is matter for congratulation that these letters have at last fallen into the hands of a competent editor. The magazine contains also the first of a series of papers by Mr. Pater, upon Gaston de La Tour, in the style of his 'Imaginary Portraits.'

—Mr. James Knowles, the editor of the *Nineteenth Century*, has had the wit and skill to persuade some of the leading foreign diplomatists in London to contribute articles on topics relating to the government of their own countries which they are best qualified to treat. Mr. Phelps, our Minister, expounded the Constitution of the United States—but its letter and its spirit rather than its actual working—and he therefore said nothing particularly new or striking. The articles in the June and July numbers by M. Waddington, the French Ambassador, on local government and county councils in France, should be read by every thinking American. Not only is the subject one which is little known, and about which it is difficult to obtain accurate information, but the articles contain instructive lessons and useful hints on subjects of great importance to us. The statements made by a man who has a practical knowledge of his subject, are very different from all that can be learned by a mere theoretical study of the French Constitution and laws. The most interesting part is that explaining the machinery by which the French have built and kept up their splendid system of public roads—the best in the world—and the want of which is such a blot on our civilization. M. Waddington's remarks on the manner in which the taxes for keeping up the roads are imposed, and by which the men who use the roads most are taxed especially for their maintenance, contain suggestions that are useful to us not only in the country, but in our large cities. The paving taxes in New York, for instance, are assessed entirely on the real estate in the street to be paved or in its immediate vicinity, on the absurd supposition that the advantage of a good pavement accrues only to the owners of that property in giving it an increased value. The majority of house-owners in New York rarely use the street except for walking or riding in a horse-car. The brewers, the manufacturers, the shippers, the owners of drays and heavy carts, who use the streets most, and who succeed in destroying the best pavement very shortly after it has been laid, pay nothing for the paving; whereas in France they pay very highly on account of the damage which they do to the roads, and their assessments are regulated yearly after a discussion between them and the authorities.

—A very important contribution to our knowledge of the English laboring classes is to be found in Mr. Charles Booth's very suggestive paper on the "Condition and Occupations of the People of East London and Hackney, 1887," published in the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. The aim of Mr. Booth, whose similar investigations in respect to the Tower Hamlets attracted wide attention last year, is "to show the relation which poverty, misery, and depravity bear to regular earnings and comparative comfort, and to describe the general conditions under which each class lives." He accordingly divides the population of the district under examination, numbering about a million souls, from information collected from house to house and family to family by the School Board visitors, into eight classes designated by the letters of the alphabet. The four classes A-D include the poor, using the term in its widest sense, A being the "loafers and semi-criminals," and D those who have "small regular earnings." Between these are the "poor," persons having a "sufficiently regular though bare income, such as 18s. to 21s. per week for a moderate family," and the "very poor," who fall below these meagre figures and live in a state of chronic want. In these four classes are to be found a little over thirty-five per cent. of the population, the largest proportions being in the second, the "very poor," and the fourth classes; the "loafers" forming only a little over one per cent. Mr. Booth then proceeds to show the causes of this poverty. These he divides into three kinds, which he terms questions of employment—that is, irregular work, low pay, and small profits; questions of habit, as intemperance; and questions of circumstance, as illness or large family combined with irregular work, etc. Out of sixteen hundred families of the classes A and B, 4 per cent. were loafers, those who will not work; 55 per cent. were "very poor" because of irregular work, etc., 14 per cent. on account of drinking habits, and 27 per cent. because of illness or large family. The condition of twenty-four hundred families in classes C and D was due in 68 per cent. to irregular work, 13 per cent. to intemperance, and 19 per cent. to illness or large family. It appears, therefore, from these figures that irregular work and low wages are the principal causes of poverty. In this connection Mr. Booth insists strongly upon the fact that "the poverty of the poor is mainly the result of the competition of the very poor." To the rich "the very poor are a sentimental interest; to the poor they are a crushing load." And he adds, evidently confident of the feasibility of his remedy: "The entire removal of this class out of the daily struggle for existence I believe to be the only solution of the problem of poverty."

—Another important observation is upon the necessity of "organizing the enforced leisure" of the poor. He makes no suggestion as to the methods, beyond referring to Mr. Auberon Herbert's plan for educational classes, and inviting the workingmen's clubs to endeavor to supply some other place of rendezvous for the unemployed than the public house. There is one ray of light which breaks the gloom of this paper in the confident statement that "the hordes of barbarians of whom we have heard, who, coming forth from their slums, will one day overwhelm modern civilization, do not exist. The barbarians are a handful, a very small and decreasing percentage." Among the numerous tables which Mr. Booth has prepared as the result of his investigations are ten showing the occupations of the inhabitants of East London and Hackney. From these it appears that by far the largest proportion are engaged in the clothing and furniture trades and upon the docks. From another table we learn that one million, out of the four millions who live in London, are in the "classes in poverty sinking to want." At the close of his paper Mr. Booth stated that an inquiry similar to his was about to be undertaken in Central London and Manchester; also, that the results of his investigations were soon to be published in a book "of which he would be editor, and to which there would be several able contributors," and which would deal with many points referred to in his paper, and especially in the discussion which followed its reading before the Society.

—Vol. 4 of the Astor Library Catalogue carries on the alphabet from R to Z, and finishes this important work in 4,276 pages, as it has been determined to accompany this author-catalogue with no subject-catalogue or index—not even such as was printed with the earlier catalogue. A subject-catalogue is really much needed at the Astor Library, that which was furnished with the original catalogue having been only a fragment of what Dr. Cogswell intended; and, though it serves a purpose, it falls far below what the public has a right to expect from so large a library. But economical reasons, we believe, prevented the Library from completing the former work according to Dr. Cogswell's plan. The Library has a subject-catalogue on cards of the portion covered by these volumes, and also of the later accessions since 1880, or, at least, is supposed to have such a catalogue. But we know from experience that, so far as the volumes covered by this author-catalogue are concerned, the subject-catalogue is rather unsystematic and imperfect, so that it strangely leaves a large number of volumes, to say nothing of articles in periodicals, unrepresented. We hope that before long the Library will print such a subject-catalogue as it needs and the value of its contents deserves. The method and the merit of the present catalogue we have already discussed; but it may be interesting to note here, among its curiosities, that the largest number of pages is given to the letter B, 404, and S comes next with 357, then M with 322, and C with 300. A leads the vowels with 240 pages, and is followed by U with 109, and E with 104. The smallest number of pages falls to X, 1½. U also contains the longest entry under one main heading, viz., United States, which requires 76 pages, or, including the entries in which United States appears as a part of the title, 82. The public is very much indebted to the Trustees for so valuable a help in consulting the resources of the Astor Library.

—The convention for the creation of an International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works was signed at Berne, Switzerland, on September 9, 1886, by the representatives of ten countries: Germany, Belgium, Spain, France, Great Britain, Hayti, Italy, Liberia, Switzerland, and Tunis. The exchange of ratifications took place on September 5, 1887, also at Berne; but on that occasion Liberia was not represented, and, therefore, did not become one of the countries of the

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Union. The treaty by which the Union was created, in accordance with its twentieth article, went into force three months after the day upon which the ratifications were exchanged, namely, December 5, 1887. Although only nine States, therefore, entered into this most important Union at the time of its formation, its promoters are hopeful that ultimately all civilized countries — including even the United States — will become members, and article eighteen of the convention provides that any country may accede to it in the future, provided the domestic laws of the country secure to authors and artists a protection for their works equal to that granted by the terms of the Union. Notification of such accession is to be sent in writing to the Swiss Government, and the latter, through the Bureau of the Union, is to communicate the fact to all the other countries. Accession implies a full adhesion to all the provisions of the convention and admission to all of its advantages. The first country to avail itself of the privilege of accession is the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. A law to permit that State to enter the Union was passed by its Chamber of Deputies on April 25, agreed to by the Council of State on May 11, and approved by the Grand Duke, King William III. of Holland, on May 23 this year. This was followed, June 27, by a royal decree promulgating the accession, which is to date from June 20, 1888; and notice to that effect was promptly sent, on July 10, by the President of the Swiss Confederation, to the other countries of the Union. The Grand Duchy takes its place in the sixth class as regards its contribution to the expenses of the International Bureau, its present proportion being, therefore, about one fifty-fourth part of the entire expenditure.

—Every contribution to a better understanding of our modern literary English is welcome, all the more so when it betokens careful and systematic study. Such is Morsbach's 'Ueber den Ursprung der neuenglischen Schriftsprache,' a pamphlet of nearly 200 pp., published by Henninger Bros., Heilbronn, 1888. The author's general position is that the language embodied in the London documents (public and private) from 1384 to 1430 may be taken as the prototype of our modern literary English. It comes nearest to the language adopted and perpetuated by Caxton and his press in the latter half of the century. And from Caxton's speech to that of Shakspere and the King James Bible is but a short step, we add. Some opposition has already shown itself in England to Morsbach's view; but we suspect that this opposition rests, in the main, upon a misconception. As we understand the author, he does not assert that the actual *spoken* language of London—what we should call fifteenth-century Cockney—is the prototype of Caxton. He merely implies (his language is not so precise as we could wish) that there seems to have grown up in and around the public offices of London a conventional *modus loquendi et scribendi*, which had official currency throughout the greater part of England. If this be so, London document-English played in the fifteenth century a part analogous to the Saxon-Chancery German in Luther's time. At any rate, whether we accept or reject Morsbach's opinion, the bulk of his work is not to be assailed, for it consists of 150 pp. of analysis of the language of the documents from every point of view, phonology, declension, and conjugation. It is the most satisfactory grammatical discussion that one could wish. Only at one point do we feel called upon to raise the voice of protest. Morsbach, with many of his German colleagues, speaks continually of *Northern* speech, *Anglian* influences, and the like. To our mind Mercian would be the better term, especially since Sweet's edition of the Vespasian Psalter has enabled us to follow this great Midland speech from a very early date. "Northern" suggests too much the language of Northumbria. And "Anglian" should be restricted to the Peterborough region.

DOMESDAY STUDIES.

Domesday Studies: Being the papers read at the meetings of the Domesday Commemoration, 1886. With a bibliography of Domesday Book, and accounts of the MSS. and printed books exhibited at the Public Record Office and at the British Museum. Edited by P. Edward Dove, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888. 4to, pp. 399.

In this age of centennial celebrations, it is right and fitting that so remarkable a centennial as the eight hundredth anniversary of the compilation of Domesday Book should not have passed without notice. The commemoration took place two years ago, but it is not surprising that so long a time has elapsed before the publication of proceedings so extensive, varied, and abounding in puzzling detail. The first volume consists entirely of papers read at the meeting; the second volume, "which will be published as soon as possible," will contain the rest of the papers, together with bibliography, index, etc.

The extreme importance of this unique document was only slowly realized, and for many centuries it was, to all intents and purposes, unknown. The full recognition of its value, and its systematic study, were only made possible by the development of the scientific methods of historical study in the last century. About a hundred years ago (1783) it was printed in two volumes. Shortly after, it was made the subject of careful analysis by Sir Henry Ellis, whose labors, embodied in a series of indices which make up the third volume (published in 1816), have formed the indispensable foundation for all subsequent study. This analysis has been made once for all, and will for ever be a monument of Sir Henry Ellis's well-directed industry. His discussion of the subject-matter of the survey, with definitions and classifications, had great value at the time, and formed the starting-point for further investigations; these later investigations have, however, corrected and superseded his conclusions in many particulars. In the same year (1816) a fourth volume was published, containing supplementary matter—the Exon Domesday, the Ely Inquest, etc.

Since the publication of Sir Henry Ellis's labors, a vast amount of work has been accomplished in detail, especially by the late Rev. R. W. Eyton, who, as Mr. Round says in the present volume (p. 191), "may, perhaps, fairly be described as the greatest of our Domesday scholars. He may be said to have saturated himself with the Record, and to have been virtually the only student who has really grappled with the Survey and explored its inmost recesses. . . . The great characteristic of his work was his marvellous and untiring industry." Mr. Round adds, however: "Whether his judgment or his critical acumen were equal to his devouring industry, I must be permitted to doubt." Mr. Eyton's most important publication upon the subject is his 'Key to Domesday,' based upon the survey for Dorsetshire. The Commemoration of 1886 will probably prove an important epoch in the study, by commencing a more systematic coöperation in the examination of the document, and laying the foundation for the coördination of the work of different students. A "Domesday Society" has been proposed, and the "Selden Society," devoted to the study of the history of English law, has been organized, and has commenced the publication of early documents bearing upon the subject.

The papers contained in the present volume are for the most part directed to the examination of certain fundamental technical expressions, upon the proper understanding of which must depend any fruitful study of the subject. The thing to be firmly fixed in the mind by the student is, that the document is named the *Exchequer* Domesday: that it was not drawn up for the purpose of taking a census in the modern sense, still less of enlightening posterity as to the social and economical history of England in the eleventh century, but solely to assist in the collection of the revenue. What is to us its principal value was not present in the minds of those who collected the statistics; consequently, the information we can derive upon the points most interesting to us must be purely incidental. The system of taxation being based upon the land, it follows that, for revenue purposes, the divisions of the land are the first thing to be considered; and consequently we find these territorial areas described with exactness in every part of the Survey, as the most important feature of it. The nomenclature is not uniform; the divisions are given as *hides* in most counties, as *carucates* in the northern counties, and as *solins* in Kent; but as these divisions, by whatever name, form the basis of taxation, obviously the first thing to be done is to ascertain their exact meaning. Upon this subject a great deal of labor has been employed, but perplexities, confusions, and apparent contradictions in the data have been so great as heretofore to baffle the most industrious researches. The key to the problem was discovered by Mr. Eyton, in the fact that the term *hide* and *carucate*, as used in Domesday, were "terms denoting fiscal value rather than areal quantity" (p. 192); the establishment of this true principle, "that the hide of Domesday (that is, the *hida ad geldum*) was not a measure of area, but a unit of geld assessment, led him to reject the conception of the hide as being ever a definite areal measure." Here, according to Mr. Round, is his mistake; in the double use of the term, as an areal measure (of one hundred and twenty acres), and as (in Domesday) a unit of assessment, is to be found the source of the confusions and contradictions alluded to.

The largest number of papers by any one person in this volume is the three by Canon Isaac Taylor, who contributes the interesting article on Domesday Survivals, printed in the *Contemporary Review* two or three years ago, a paper on "The Ploughland and the Plough," and one on "Wapentakes and Hundreds." The paper upon "The Ploughland and the Plough" brings out a very important fact—the coexistence of the three-field and the two-field systems, with the rule for testing them; his examples are taken from Yorkshire, the county of his residence. This same local association gives interest to the paper upon "Wapentakes and Hundreds," in which he establishes an equally important principle. It is generally assumed that Wapentake was the name given to the Hundred in the Danish counties. This he shows to be a mistake, saying that, "instead of the Wapentakes of the Danish shires 'answering,' as has been affirmed, to the Hundreds of the Saxon counties, it would appear that they were districts of three times the extent [containing three Hundreds each], probably constituted for

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a different constitutional purpose, and for a time coexistent with the associated Hundreds of which they were composed" (p. 76).

The longest paper in the volume, occupying, with notes and appendix, one hundred and sixty pages, is by Mr. O. C. Pell—"a new view of the geldable unit of Doomsday." In this valuable and elaborate paper we have a complete survey of the monetary system and the systems of weights and measures of the different nationalities of early Britain, from the point of view of the two parallel methods of dividing the *libra* or pound: the Roman division into seventy-two *solidi* (from which is derived apothecaries' weight), and that of Charlemagne, which divided the pound into twenty *solidi* (shillings) and two hundred and forty *denarii* (pennies) (the same as in Troy weight). He also shows (p. 233) that there was a third pound, of 7,680 grains, divided into 256 pence, which he considers as pre-Anglo-Saxon, but calls "Mercian," because "for a long period it was the basis of the moneys of account of the Kingdom of Mercia": this is, however, of inferior importance. In this paper we find what is not uncommon with persons of mathematical and statistical turn of mind—a habit of ignoring the intellectual needs of those who are not gifted with similar powers, so that many steps in the argument are obscure or left out altogether. Mr. Pell's remarks in the discussion (p. 32) were quite unintelligible to us until we compared them with his paper; and even now there are several things we cannot understand. Where, for instance, does he get his authority (p. 229) for saying that the Roman shilling (*solidus*), 1-72 of a pound of gold, was divided into ninety-six grains? The Romans at no time had a weight called a *grain;* and certainly the Roman pound did not weigh 6,912 grains Troy. The gold-*solidus* of the post-Diocletian period had a counterpart in a silver coin of precisely the same weight, 1-72 of a pound, known as the *miliarense*, and valued at 1-14 of the *solidus*. The *siliqua*, of half of this value, gives us again the *half-siliqua*, 1-288 of a pound; that is precisely the *scruple* of apothecaries' weight, the *penig* of the Anglo-Saxons; and it must be this with which he has somehow confounded his mythical grains of 1-96 of a *solidus*.

Another of Mr. Pell's theories we cannot accept—that "the words 'villanus' and 'servus' in Domesday Book do not necessarily imply a reference to *one person* only. They very often mean an estate of one or more villani, or servi, etc." "I have found," he says, "so many cases in the Hundred Rolls and other old MSS. where the number of virgates exactly tallies with the number of villani, servi, bordarii, sochemanni, and libere tenentes stated in Domesday." This is not surprising under any theory: but if his theory were correct, should we not expect this correspondence always to exist? But this certainly is not the case, and our impression is that the greatest irregularity exists in this respect. The mention of half-villani is, to be sure, a difficulty; but we should incline to explain it rather as half-*service* than as half-*tenure*. Neither can we agree with him that the *servus* of Domesday Book "was not a slave as we understand the word"; he is mistaken in the assertion that "in the Latin translation of the laws of Ina, made in the twelfth century, . . . the word 'gebur' is construed 'servus.'" In Ina's laws the word *gebur* occurs only in chap. 6, § 3, and the Latin translation uses the same word—*gebures* and *geburo;* so in the *Rectitudines*, chap. 4. On the other hand *servus* is regularly used in Ina's laws to represent *theow* (chaps. 3, 11, 23, etc.).

It is very proper that the systematic study of Domesday Book should begin, as is done in this volume, with the attempt to determine this fundamental point of the territorial areas. This once done—and the present discussion appears to have very nearly accomplished it—new questions of the highest interest, social, economical, and constitutional, will present themselves in abundance. It is probable that we are even yet far from realizing the wealth of information in these several lines of inquiry which remains to be derived from this incomparable record. In this connection it may be worth while to call attention to Mr. Birch's 'Domesday Book,' published by the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, as the most compendious introduction to the study of this book, and best suited to the wants of beginners.

TWO EDITIONS OF THUCYDIDES.

Thucydides Book I. Edited on the basis of Classen's Edition by Charles D. Morris, Professor in the Johns Hopkins University. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Thucydides Book VII. Edited on the basis of Classen's Edition by Charles Forster Smith, Professor of Greek in Vanderbilt University. Ginn & Co.

The Sixth and Seventh Books of Thucydides, with an Introductory Essay, Explanatory Notes, and Indexes. By W. A. Lamberton, A.M., Professor of Greek in the Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa. Harper & Bros.

If the ratio of the number of new text-books, in any branch of study pursued in our high schools, academies, and colleges, to the whole number of students in those institutions is any indication of the extent to which that study is pursued, then the friends of classical literature, and especially of Greek literature, have no reason to complain. Two series of the ancient classic authors are now passing through the press in two of the great publishing houses of this country—"Harper's Classical Series," embracing both Greek and Latin authors, published under the editorial supervision of Professor Drisler of Columbia College, and the "College Series of Greek Authors," published by Ginn & Co. of Boston, under the supervision of Professor White of Harvard and Professor Seymour of Yale. Although these gentlemen have the general oversight of the editorial work, yet each volume is intrusted to a special editor, with entire freedom to carry out his own ideas of how the work should be done, so far as is consistent with the general plan. The lists of the names of special editors include a large portion of the most distinguished classical scholars in America. In this respect there is perhaps nothing to choose between the two series. The latest issues of both which we have received cover in part the same ground, and thus suggest comparison.

In their general appearance the books of the "College Series" are by far the handsomer. The "Harper's Series" look more like school-books, the "College Series" more like books for the library of a scholar. So far as legibility of the Greek text is concerned, both series deserve the highest praise; but the "College Series," by using a slightly broader type and a wider spacing, has secured for the Greek text a freer, more open, and handsomer appearance, which, though perhaps not necessary to legibility, is yet a commendable sacrifice of paper to taste. The larger page and broader margins also contribute to the same end.

The next great difference between the two series is in the arrangement of the matter. In "Harper's Series" the text is placed continuously in the fore part of the volume, the notes in the back part; in the "College Series" the notes are on the same page with the text—indisputably the better method for all the purposes of study—while extended discussions and textual criticism alone are relegated to the back of the book.

Coming now to the works, the titles of which we have given, it will be observed that the seventh book of Thucydides appears in both Series. Prof. Lamberton, in "Harper's Series," gives us an edition of both the sixth and seventh books. Prof. Smith, in the "College Series," gives us only the seventh, but Prof. White, in the prospectus of the series, promises us the sixth edited by himself. Even with this future publication in view, we think Prof. Smith would have done well to have prefixed to his edition of the seventh book a summary of the contents of the sixth. Certainly, without attaining in some way a knowledge of the events recorded in the previous book the seventh cannot be fully appreciated. In fact, the two together form a book within a book. Had all the rest of his history perished, and these two only come down to us, although the loss to mankind would have been irreparable, yet it would scarcely have lessened the fame of the historian. The two books would still have been regarded, as they always have been and probably always will be, as the great masterpiece of the human intellect in the department of descriptive historical literature. Thucydides considered the Peloponnesian war as the most important that had ever been carried on up to his time. The expedition against Sicily, which forms the subject of the sixth and seventh books, he regarded not only as the greatest event of that war, but as the greatest in all Greek history. Impressed with this opinion, or rather sentiment, he exerted all his powers to make his narrative worthy of its subject, and the unanimous verdict of posterity has been that he was completely successful.

When the Athenian people in their public assembly decided to undertake the expedition against Sicily, Athens was at the height of her power. Although the war with Sparta had been dragging on with varying fortune for fifteen years, yet it had hardly retarded her growth. The number of private citizens whom in our day we should call "millionaires" was, in proportion to her population, very great. The public treasury was full, revenues from all quarters were pouring into it, her only trouble was her "surplus." When the enormous cost of the expedition was dwelt upon by the few who opposed it, they were silenced by the popular cry, "Money is no object; stop talking and tell us how much you want." The two books in which Thucydides narrates the history of this expedition, the magnificence with which it set out and the annihilation in which it ended, form the two members of a mighty antithesis. It is wonderfully impressive to read the thirtieth and thirty-first chapters of the sixth book and then turn over and read the last two chapters of the seventh. In the former he tells us how, early in a midsummer morning, the whole population of Athens, citizens and strangers, flocked down to the Peiraeus to witness the departure of the fleet, and gazed in wonder and astonishment at the splendor and completeness of their own work; in the latter he seems in the compass of a few lines to have exhausted the resources of the Greek language in summing up the completeness of its ruin.

In the character of the notes the two editions are entirely different. Any two scholars editing independently the same author will each, of course, find some points that he thinks worthy of attention which the other will pass

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by unnoticed. But, speaking with approximate accuracy, we may say that the edition in the "College Series" contains all that is in the edition in the "Harper's Series," and a great deal more. From a somewhat minute examination, and making due allowance for the difference in the size of the type, we find that the commentary in the "College Series" is more than three times as extensive as that of the Harper's. Prof. Lamberton seems to have aimed at the construction of a good and serviceable text-book for a young man who is learning Greek. We think he has been remarkably successful in accomplishing this purpose. But the editors of the volumes of the "College Series," while keeping this object in view, have aimed at much more. Both Prof. Morris and Prof. Smith have made the edition of the German scholar Classen the basis of their own, and have incorporated in their commentary the great bulk of his labors. But they have modified, altered, and added as they saw fit, and have assumed the responsibility of the whole. They have endeavored to give us an edition of Thucydides, not only for the use of pupils but of professors and special students, exhibiting all the essential results of modern scholarship, or, where this would lead to an inconvenient amount of discussion, pointing out the sources of more minute information. We had marked several notes on the same passage in the two editions for comparison, but omit them for want of space. But a very fair idea of the greater elaboration of the edition in the "College Series" may be obtained from a comparison of the summaries placed at the heads of the chapters. Taking the first chapter of the seventh book, Prof. Lamberton in the "Harper's Series" has:

"Chapter 1. Gylippus lands at Himera, Collects a force of Greeks and Sicels, and advances towards Syracuse."

Prof. Smith in the "College Series" has:

"1. After refitting his four ships, Gylippus leaves Tarentum, and, receiving at the Epizephyrian Locri more favorable news of the situation at Syracuse, proceeds undisturbed by Attic ships through the Strait to Himera. From this point he enters into communication with Selinus and Gela and various Sicel localities, and with seven hundred men of his own troops, and over two thousand who joined him from Himera and the allied places, begins his march through the interior towards Syracuse."

This is not more than an average specimen. In fact, the summaries of the chapters in the "College Series" edition, when read consecutively, form a more interesting and more detailed narrative of the ruin of the great expedition than will be found in many large histories of Greece.

In the "College Series" the first book of Thucydides bears upon its title-page the name of the late Prof. Morris as editor. But he left it in an incomplete condition. "Death prevented him." Out of the 146 chapters of which the book consists, he had completed the commentary on 124 and revised it in print. He had, however, left blanks, from chapter 88 on, for the subsequent insertion of the dates of the events recorded in that part of the book. The critical notes were also left in a very inchoate state. The chronology and the criticism are precisely the two points in regard to which scholars would have most liked to see a full statement of Prof. Morris's views. At the end of chapter 88, Thucydides pauses in his narrative of the events immediately preceding the Peloponnesian war, and, in one of the most interesting episodes of his work, proceeds in the next 30 chapters to sketch the history of the development of the Athenian power during the half century, the "penteconta-etia," or "fifty years," of the Greek grammarians, which had elapsed since the close of the Persian war. The date of nearly every event recorded in these chapters has been a matter of controversy. Prof. Morris had made the chronology of the whole period a special study, and although, from papers read by him before the Philological Association, from correspondence, from his memoranda, from MS. notes on the margins of the editions of Thucydides which he used, and from friends, Prof. White has probably succeeded in giving us the conclusions at which he arrived, yet the reasoning by which those conclusions were supported is irretrievably lost. The preparation of the commentary on the last 22 chapters of the book and the revision, and to a considerable extent the preparation of the critical notes on the whole book, have devolved upon Prof. White. In performing this task he has "endeavored to follow out with scrupulous care the lines which he [Prof. Morris] laid down." For practical purposes it is altogether probable that the book does not differ essentially from what it would have been had Prof. Morris lived to finish it.

The notes include a number—unequalled, we believe, in any edition of a classic author that ever appeared on this side of the Atlantic—of references to parallel passages of Thucydides, to other Greek authors, and to grammatical, philological, and historical works. Thus, on chapter 1, which consists of fourteen lines of text, we have ninety-three references, on chapter 2, consisting of twenty-eight lines, we have ninety-seven, on chapter 3, consisting of twenty-three lines, we have seventy-one, and so on through both the first and the seventh books. In very many of these cases reference to the original sources is rendered unnecessary, by quotation or by summary statements of the views of the authors referred to. There are, however, a great number of works which, from the language in which they are written, from their inaccessibility except in large libraries, or for other reasons, are of no use to the average pupil in Greek, but to the professor or specialist are of the highest value.

The Household Library of Ireland's Poets, with full and choice selections from the Irish-American Poets, and a complete department of authentic biographical notes. Collected and edited by Daniel Connolly. Published by the Editor, 28 Union Square, New York.

THIS sumptuous cyclopædia of Irish poetry, with its eight hundred closely filled pages, excites at first the sort of vague and remote curiosity with which the visitor at the Dublin University Library looks at the loaded shelves of untranslated Erse literature; but these contributions to poetic treasure have the advantage of the English tongue, and of being as a rule far easier reading. The collection is of the greatest variety, yet gives on the whole a creditable impression of that Irish harp which appears, laurelled with shamrock, on the wide green covers. In quantity Mr. Connolly exceeds all previous editors, yet so much of the interest of Irish poetry is retrospective that his arrangement, which is wholly topical, affords, after all, a less attractive volume than the smaller work of Alfred M. Williams, 'Poets and Poetry of Ireland' (Boston: Osgood, 1881), which preserves the historical form. Viewed historically, such a collection may almost be called fascinating in its interest; there is nothing in the Scottish ballad literature, before Burns, more thoroughly poetic than some of the songs of the Irish Bards and Hedge-Poets, as translated by Sir Samuel Ferguson and others. Mr. Connolly gives us a few of these, as, for instance, "Dark Rosaleen" (p. 404); but they are necessarily intermingled, by his arrangement, with what is modern and contemporary, thus losing their peculiar flavor. In Croker's 'Popular Songs of Ireland,' although we have less of this earlier matter, we at least have the works of each author brought together and elucidated; but Mr. Connolly's topical arrangement prevents even this, and though the book is thoroughly indexed, and there is an appendix of biographical sketches, yet we have, after all, an encyclopædia rather than a manual. Of this, however, there is no good reason to complain; it is simply a question of arrangement.

It is perhaps a just ground of complaint that out of 260 poets we have biographical sketches of only 167; although in many cases, where the career is unchronicled, the place and date of birth, and sometimes of death, are given. The ground of this limitation is not clear; there is, for instance, no memoir of Dion Boucicault, who is certainly well known without it; but neither is there any of Julia Crawford, whose tender lines "We parted in silence" found a place in many albums of the last generation, but of whom we are here only assured that she was "born in Ireland." Equally questionable is the too-expanded range of the selection. There can be no fair objection to including those who are Irish through their parents or even through one parent only—thus comprising, for example, the Brontë sisters; but to include James Whitcomb Riley, on the ground that one of his four great-grandparents was Irish, and to print the "Bunker Hill Centennial Ode" of the late Mr. George Sennott without offering evidence that he had any claim to Irish origin at all, is to stretch the range almost as widely as when Ossian is placed on the rolls (p. 477), with the assertion that it is a vexed question whether he belonged to Scotland or Ireland. Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman's insertion is explained on the ground that although her ancestors for four generations had lived in America, they (the Powers) were descended from the Norman family of Le Poer, one of whose ladies defended the castle of Don against Cromwell; and that Mrs. Whitman wrote a poem on this subject, which appears in this volume. So Thomas S. Collier is included, not merely because one of his ancestors left Ireland soon after the battle of the Boyne, but because his "Sunburst" is a warm and vigorous protest against English rule. Yet this is to make the book a campaign pamphlet, which it should not be, and which it is not really designed to be, since the editor inserts Charlotte Elizabeth's spirited verses on the siege of Derry, "The Maiden City," though omitting, strangely enough, to index her under her proper name of Tonna; and adds, also, though with some unnecessary apology, the Orange ballad, "Oliver's Advice," by William Blacker. Inasmuch as the editor rightly makes no distinction, among Irish-American poets, between the songsters of the Union and the Confederacy, there seems no reason why the far older Irish feuds should be commemorated even in foot-notes.

It is curious to notice how many of the best poems in this large volume are in that rolling ballad measure of which Moore knew nothing, but which is only too familiar to the ear, through the hand-organs, in "The Wearing of the Green," and is exemplified in literature by Sir Samuel Ferguson's "Forging of the Anchor" and Thomas Davis's "Fontenoy" and "The Sack of Baltimore." Mrs. Norton indicated her Irish blood by employing it in "Bingen"; and Boyle O'Reilly holds to it in "The Fishermen of Wexford." Mr. Connolly gives

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the text of all his poems with much critical and typographical accuracy; and where he has a new text of his own he has doubtless reason for the substitution. Thus, in poor Callanan's fine verses beginning:

"There is a green island in lone Gougane Barra,"

he gives a version differing in some respects from that familiar to us in Croker's and in Williams's collections, and, on the whole, more effective; yet this affords no explanation of his spelling the name of the poem differently in different places. It is "Gougane" (the usual form) on pages 9 and 734 and "Gougaune" (twice) on page 184. In some cases we note omissions: Mr. Connolly leaves out Lady Wilde's strongest poem, "A Million a Decade"; and that best stroke of Charles G. Halpine's wit, his song in favor of the enlistment of black soldiers in the Union army, with its droll burden:

"Ivery day in the year, my boys,
And ivery hour in the day,
I'll let Sambo be murthered in place of meself,
And niver a word I'll say."

The exclusion of humorous songs has, we think, been carried rather too far; it may have been very well to draw the line this side of "The Night before Larry was Stretched," or even of "Bumpers, Squire Jones"; but we confess to a sigh at looking in vain for "The Gathering of the Mahonys." After all, Mr. Connolly is better than his word, and gives us "Groves of Blarney" and "The Widow Malone"; but it must be remembered that an Irishman without humor becomes a miserable being; if you doubt it, visit the essentially cheerful slums of Dublin, and then the grim haunts of the transplanted Irish in Glasgow. If we may believe one of our editor's best poets, this sense of fun extends fully among the priesthood; thus, in Arthur Graves's "Father O'Flynn," we read:

"And though quite avoiding all foolish frivolity,
Still, at all seasons of innocent jollity,
Where is the play-boy can claim an equality
At comicality, Father, with you?
Once the bishop looked grave at your jest,
Till this remark set him off with the rest:
'Is it lave gaiety
All to the laity?
Cannot the clargy be Irishmen too?'" (P. 536.)

Near and Far: An Angler's Sketches of Home Sport and Colonial Life. By William Senior, Angling Editor of the *Field*. London: Sampson Low. 1888.

Mr. Senior, to whom we owe several previous entertaining and well-written books on angling and pastoral life, has made this one in two divisions—the first entitled "Sketches of Home Sport," the second, "Sketches of Colonial Life." The chapters on home sport are a charming combination of narrative and divergence therefrom to the varied topics of rural life and economics suggested by the scenes and incidents presented to the reader, and seeming to come naturally and properly within the scope of the chapter headings. No fishing excursion is described in which there is not conveyed a pleasing and graphic idea of much more than the sport it yields—the peculiarity of the people of the district, interesting facts of the neighborhoods (and what country so full of them as England?), the trees and flowers, their seasons and changes, the animal life—all incidentally brought in, with scarcely anything left out that a lover of nature would observe.

All this, however, must yield in interest to the contents of the second division of the book. The "sketches of colonial life" are mostly from Queensland, a part of Australia not well known, in this country at least, and give descriptions of the life, manners, customs, and industries of that colony, from which the average reader will learn much more than he would get from a volume of statistics. A most interesting chapter is the third, on "Horse-hunting." It seems that in parts of Australia wild horses, there called "brombies," the descendants of animals which have escaped from their owners, have become such a nuisance that, besides being captured in large numbers for use, they are shot for their hides and hair. The extent to which this is done can be imagined from Mr. Senior's statement, p. 183, that one hunter whose acquaintance he made had shot, within two years, 3,000 horses. There are twenty pages of description of this novel sport, which certainly leave one to infer that Mr. Senior did not regret his own lack of success in killing the noble specimens of horseflesh he writes about. At any rate, the sympathies of the reader are altogether with the animals.

Chapter v., "The Dugong," gives a history of this marine animal, and of the Queensland industry of catching and converting him into leather, meat, ivory, and oil, the latter having remarkable medicinal effects in the diseases of rheumatism and consumption. Chapter iv., "Among the Sugar-canes," can be recommended; and Chapters viii. and xii., "The Sheep Station" and "On a Cattle Station," contain full and well-written accounts of these chief Australian industries, of the people engaged in them, and their mode of life. Chapter xi., on Kangaroos, is also most interesting. They are the great foes of the Queensland colonists, and it is estimated that each one consumes yearly sufficient grain to feed two sheep. At certain seasons when it is very dry, the kangaroos come down in vast hordes from the mountains, and literally "eat up the country," with the result of bringing thousands of sheep and cattle to starvation. The colonial authorities give a reward for each kangaroo scalp, and to earn this, and for self-protection, the settlers organize hunts, in which, by the employment of numerous beaters, the kangaroos are driven within range of the concealed sportsmen. At one of these, in which Mr. Senior assisted, 921 kangaroos were killed, and he states that an idea of the "incredibly great number" of these animals can be got from the fact that at one station in the same district 23,000 were shot during one year.

The Land of the Pueblos. By Susan E. Wallace. New York: John B. Alden. 1888. 285 pp., with illustrations.

This little book is a reprint of a series of papers published several years ago in different periodicals. As such it must be judged, and while it, of course, still possesses the same charm which these papers offered to the reader at the time, it also suffers from the same defects. The author should have informed herself, before undertaking this republication, of whatever advance historical knowledge has accomplished in the lapse of time intervening, and should have incorporated it in the present issue, insofar as it entered in the scope of her work. For, while the book has many bright sides, it is lamentably adrift in all that touches upon the history and ethnology of New Mexico. It would be useless to go into any details; the entire picture of New Mexico's past is so utterly at fault that it would be superfluous to specify. This is the more regrettable, since the headings of several chapters give the idea that the author's data and facts are derived from the Spanish Archives at Santa Fé. Nevertheless, it is plain that, while the author has doubtless *seen* many documents, she has had no opportunity of reading, let alone studying, any of them. As far as actual life in New Mexico is concerned, the author cannot be too much praised for her admirable pictures of it. But the past seems to her a sealed book, in regard to which she is content to repeat, though in a beautiful way, statements and appreciations which at their time were just and seemed true, but which are no longer of our period. Should a second edition of the work be intended, a thorough revision of these parts would make it very valuable.

Schriftsprache und Dialekte im Deutschen nach Zeugnissen alter und neuer Zeit. Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache von Adolf Socin. Heilbronn: Gebrüder Henninger. 1888.

The idea of this elaborate and learned treatise is to exhibit the evolution of literary German in its relation to the spoken dialects of the people. This object the author endeavors to accomplish partly by descriptive exposition of his own, but mainly by means of illustrative quotations from the literary documents and the grammatical authorities of every epoch. Thus we are given not simply a history of the German language, but also a history of opinion with regard to it; a history of the contending forces, the controversies, the reformatory efforts that have made it what it is. Along with this purely historical matter the author finds space to interweave a tolerably full account of the researches and conclusions of recent scholarship, so far as these bear upon his general subject. Thus the book serves the double purpose of a mine of facts and a conspectus of discussion.

A treatise of this character was a real desideratum, and it is a pleasure to be able to testify that the task set himself by Socin has been performed with thoroughness and good judgment. He does not, indeed, so far as we have discovered, bring forward any new material of importance, and his personal contributions to the numerous learned discussions touched upon by him are not very momentous. It is also true that specialists may criticise here and there the perspective of the work and the leanings of the author with regard to controverted matters. In a longer notice than is here possible we might ourselves indulge in a few animadversions of that sort. It is to be remembered, however, that no book of like intent could possibly be written which would be altogether secure against criticism along those lines. Such strictures, in any case, would affect but little the real value of the great service which Socin has performed in patiently digesting an enormous literature, much of which is difficult of access, in presenting the results of his reading in a clear and compact form, and thus furnishing what may be called a bird's-eye view of this vast field of scholarship.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. I. L. The Photographic Instructor. Scovill Manufacturing Co.
Besant, W. Fifty Years Ago. Harper & Bros.
Brewer, D. C. Madeleine: a Poem in Fragments. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Broken Fetters: The Light of Ages on Intoxication. New York: Amies Publishing Co.
Chateauclair, W. The Young Seigneur. Montreal: Wm. Drysdale & Co.
Cobb, S., jr. Karmel the Scout. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Phonological Investigation of Old English. 50 Problems. Boston: Ginn & Co. 10 cents.
Dall, Mrs. C. H. Life of Dr. Anandabai Joshee. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Davidson, J. W. The Poetry of the Future. John B. Alden.
Davis, M. E. M. In War Times at La Rose Blanche. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Dickinson and Dowd. A Winter Picnic. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
D'Ooge, Prof. B. L. Colloquia Latina. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Finch and Sibley. John B. Finch: his Life and Work. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Galton, A. English Prose from Maundeville to Thackeray. London: Walter Scott.
Gibbon, C. Beyond Compare. Chicago: T. S. Denison.
Gosse, E. Life of William Congreve. London: Walter Scott.
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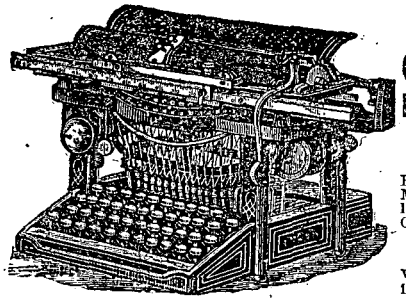

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